

MMPC-011

Social Processes and Behavioural Issues

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COURSE INTRODUCTION

Any organisation can survive with the performance of its employees. Therefore, it is essential to understand human behaviour. Each individual is unique as such one has to understand the concept of individual differences.

This course helps one understand the importance of behaviour in organisations. The concept, approaches to understand the shaping of behaviour and the evolution of the discipline of organisational behaviour has been explained. It gives an understanding about intra and inter-personal processes involved for the exhibited behaviour. Finally, it explains the emerging trends like empowerment, OCB, inclusiveness, diversity, emotional and spiritual intelligence in the discipline of organisational behaviour.



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Block

1

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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BLOCK INTRODUCTION

The First Block consists of three units. It gives an overview of the concept of organisational behaviour, various approaches to understand organisational behaviour and evolution of the discipline of organisational behaviour.



UNIT 1 **CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR**

Objectives

After reading this unit you should be able to understand:

- the changing scope of Organisational Behaviour (OB) involving Micro and Macro OB;
- the open system and institutional perspectives of society and organisation;
- the society-environment-organisation interface;
- social processes as sources of human behavior in general and at work;
- process levels from individual (micro) level to society (macro) level; and
- changing society and organisations in India

Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 The Open System and Institutional Perspectives of Society and Organisation
- 1.3 The Society-Environment-Organisation Interface
- 1.4 Social Processes as Sources of Human Behaviour
- 1.5 Process Levels from Individual (Micro) Level to Society (Macro) Level
- 1.6 Changing Society and Organisations in India
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 Self Assessment Questions
- 1.9 Further Readings/ References

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The term *Organisational Behaviour* (OB) initially had reference only to the behaviour and nature of people in organisations. Given the fuzziness of its boundaries (Blood:1994) this discipline, combining cultural anthropology, economics, political science, psychology and sociology, always tended to stretch beyond that domain. Within three decades of its established identity, OB also incorporated the behaviour and nature of organisations. (Today its concern is first with the behaviour and nature of people within organisations (Micro OB); and second with the behaviour and nature of organisations within their socio- cultural, political and economic environments (Macro OB). (Miner: 2006) Though it was intertwined with other terms like *organisation theory* and *organisation science*, yet, as a professional specialisation it has acceptably settled with the term *Organisational Behaviour*. Understanding Social processes

is important to understand both Micro and Macro OB streams. For this purpose we have to discuss the open system and institutional perspectives of society and organisation; the society-environment-organisation interface, social processes as sources of human behavior in general and at work and process levels from individual(micro) level to society (macro) level

Setting Context for OB

In the post-covid world, the needs and expectations of individuals and organizations have changed. In a recent backlash, companies such as Swiggy, Zomato etc. faced a huge backlash from its delivery partners for high workload, unequal pay, and unsafe work conditions. The study of organizational behaviour is helpful in understanding nature, beliefs, needs, expectations, and behaviour of delivery partners as individuals, management and delivery partners as teams, and the overall organizations.

Organizations are groups of people who work independently towards some purpose. Organisations are not physical buildings, instead they are two or more individuals who work together to achieve a common goal. People who work in organisations expect each other to complete certain tasks in an organised way.

Organisational behaviour is about studying how people act at work and applying that knowledge in managing organizations. It applies to the behaviour of people at work in all types of organizations: public, private, cooperative sector, commercial or service organisations. Organisational Behaviour is the study of human behaviour in organisations to improve performance, to achieve individual and organizational objectives.

Organizations allow employees to increase specialisation and division of labour, use advanced technology, manage external environment, and exert power and control to increase the value created by an organization.

Definition of OB

OB can be defined using three key features:

- Studies human behaviour.
- In the context of organisations; and
- To improve organisation's effectiveness.

OB studies behaviour of people in the context of workplace where people, processes, and external environment interact with each other.

The field of OB emphasizes on how individuals and teams think and act within organisations and with factors external to the organisation. Such knowledge helps in shaping personality and attitude to the employees and define organizational culture thus improving an organisation's efficiency and effectiveness.

Scope of OB

The purpose of OB is to explain why employees demonstrate certain behaviours, predict how employees will react to organizational situations, and influence how they act and take decisions. OB has three main focus areas:

Focus on individuals or intra-individual behaviour: The field of OB explores the individual differences in personality, attitudes, perception, motivations, and learning of each person.

Focus on teams or group or interpersonal behaviour: The nature of teams and groups is studied by exploring group norms, roles, conflicts, leadership and team building.

Focus on organization: The study also focusses on organizational structure, systems, policies, practices, and culture.

Nature of Organisational Behaviour

- OB is a behavioural approach to general business management.
- OB helps in understanding human behaviour at work through theory building and practical application.
- OB helps in predicting the behaviour of people at work.
- It is an inter-disciplinary area field that derives knowledge from fields of Sociology, Anthropology, Psychology etc. to constitute applied behavioural sciences.
- Analyses behaviour at three levels -individual, group and organization.
- OB is an action-oriented and goal-directed discipline. It provides a rational thinking about people and their behaviour
- OB is a science as it systematically studies human behaviour and as well as an art as it applies that behavioural knowledge.
- OB aims to fulfil both individual and organizational goals.

1.2 THE OPEN SYSTEM AND INSTITUTIONAL PERSPECTIVES OF SOCIETY AND ORGANISATION

Modern society is an organisational society (Amitai Etzioni). Civilization progresses through organised living in which organisations play an important role. Different types of organisations are created, developed and sustained in order to satisfy the multitude and varied needs of members of the society. Society places at the disposal of organisations all requisite resources, while setting out the objectives to be pursued and also keeps a tag on the organisations' activities and functions. Thus, while organisations per se are important for the society; society is the resource provider and janitor of all organisations.

The 'Resource Dependence Theory' (Pfeiffer & Salancik 1978) captures this concept when it postulates two assumptions namely: "first that organisations and their people are interdependent with other organisations and people; and second that consequent to this interdependence and the social relationships involved, understanding is much better served by investigating the effects and the constraints emanating from the social contexts; this is true of both individual and organisational behaviour".

The 'open systems' perspective (Katz & Kahn 1966) focuses on external social constraints on organisational action. Organisations are sub-systems of society. Society subsumes many systems. But each system has defining characteristics such as –

- 1) The importation of energetic inputs from the social environment.
- 2) Transformation of available energy as throughput, so that work is done within the system.
- 3) The exportation of a product or output into the environment.
- 4) A cycle of events in which the product exported to the environment provides the energy for repetition of the cycle.
- 5) The development of negative entropy, where by more energy, is imported from the environment than is expended in work, thus counteracting the entropic imperative, which inevitably tends towards disorganisation and death.
- 6) The existence of information inputs or signals about how the environment and the system are functioning; negative feedback from internal functioning, which provides information to correct deviations from course; and a coding process that simplifies energy and information inputs and permits their selective reception.
- 7) A steady state that preserves the character of the system and is marked by a stable ratio of energy exchanges and relations between the parts.
- 8) Movement in the direction of increasing differentiation, elaboration or specialisation.
- 9) The operation of the principle of equifinality, under which a system can achieve the same final state from different initial conditions and various paths.

The open system perspective not only identifies the characteristics of system in terms of its relationship with other systems external to it, but also provides a framework to understand the internal structures and functions, and the processes which bind them. Governing both these external and internal aspects is done through institutionalisation.

Institutionalisation is the creation, definition and execution of norms to regulate the behaviour of major units of society and organisation as systems. The norms, set out by tacit agreement of the units, determine the criteria according to which resources are allocated and purposes for which utilized; while prescribing the sanctions to ensure that such norms are upheld. Institutionalisation defines behaviour patterns required to regulate the flow of activities and resources between and within organised systems. The direct or indirect interrelatedness and dependence between organisations creates the need for institutionalisation for not only effective functioning but also for the maintenance of specific structural forms, activities and rules and degrees of exchange (Talcott & Parsons).

Institutions regulate and organize patterns of behaviour of individual members of the system and of its component groups; and in turn it is also greatly influenced by their sentiments, attitudes and activities. While the collective institutions' impact is well conceived, how the individual sentiments, attitudes and activities become exchanged and crystalized with institutions is not clear. Through processes of acculturation and socialisation institutions are transmitted from macro to micro units of the system, but the reverse analysis of how micro behaviour impacts on macro institutions is considered a blind spot caught in the 'black box' or 'dark arena' of throughput in the system. But it is an undeniable fact that, in the social exchange for achieving social order somewhere the micro and macro mutually impact one another though with differing degrees of freedom and effectiveness. The balance in this exchange is inherently maintained though temporary indications of disorganisation and disintegration appear.

Organisational structures are purported to develop in highly institutionalised contexts. Thus, they are influenced to take on the practices and procedures that are defined by prevailing rationalised ideas about organisational work held in society. When they do this they increase their legitimacy and their chances of survival. The 'neo-institutionalists' challenge this postulate and call that societal expectations defined through institutions can be fictitious and mythical as it may conflict with criteria of efficiency, profit maximisation, and such other goals of organisation (Meyer and Scott 1983). They are critical of old institutionalists' sacrosanct contention that 'Institutionalisation is the process through which a given set of cultural rules in the name of collective progress and justice; and, a pattern of activities come to be normatively and cognitively held in place, so that they are taken for granted to be lawful either by formal law, customs or common knowledge; and action is not by individual choice but of broad social scripts.' They see that in this contention the individualism loses out in large part to 'the massive institutional features of the social system'. They also see a forced 'rationalisation' which is a purposive or instrumental process that structure everyday life within impersonal norms and rules that constitute universal social organisation and collective moral purpose. They suggest a model as given in the Exhibit 1.1 below.

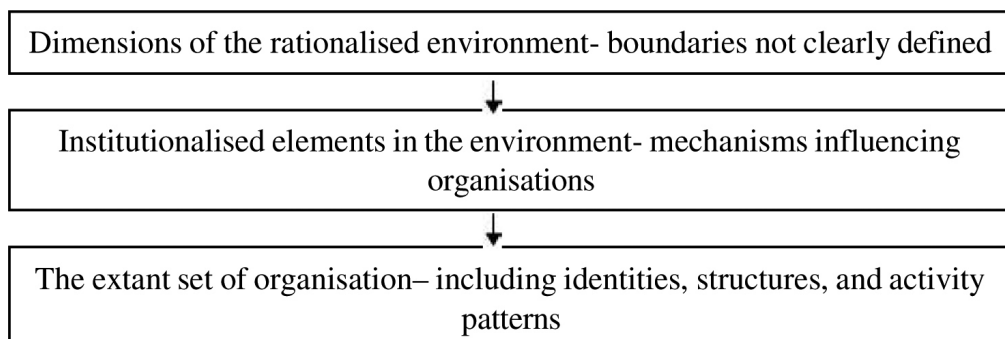


Exhibit 1.1: Neo- Institutionalists Model

The neo institutionalists suggest for four ways of integrating units into institutionalisation process namely

- Representational rules involving shared logics or modes of reasoning that help to create shared understanding of reality that have been ‘taken for granted’;
- Consultative rules that create ‘actors’ i.e. identities and entities linked to specified behaviours and action routines;
- Normative rules that stipulate expectations for behaviour that are both internalised by actors and reinforced by the beliefs and actions of those with whom they interact; and
- Enforcement mechanisms, both formal and informal, involving surveillance, assessment, and the application of sanctions rewarding conformity and punishing deviance. (Scott and Meyer, 1994)

Bringing the neo institutionalisation to still micro level, Lynne Zucker (1977, 1983) suggests that organisations shall go for potentially repeatable (objective) and socially approved (exterior) institutional processes. Transmission, Maintenance and Resistance are conceived as three possibilities of institutional norms getting crystalized in organisations. More the objectivity and exteriority, greater is the feasibility and continuity of transmission. Transmission shall be sustained by maintenance which shall be a continuous effort. When the first two fail, resistance to institutions grow and the reality is that they fail and resistance also comes up though not fully and continuously but partially and intermittently. Stability and change are to be judiciously balanced through institutionalisation for the continuance of the system.

Inter-organisational institutionalisation is addressed through the concept of ‘isomorphism’ which means that ‘similarity in different organisms resulting from convergence’. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) identify *coercive* (arising from unilateral power seeking legitimacy in terms of compliance), *mimetic* (resulting from standard imitative responses to uncertainty) and *normative* (identified with professionalism) isomorphism. The organisation’s tendency to model their institutions on the basis of dependence on other organisations; be it political, economic, or social for resources, policies, capital and other needs; is considered as a method of institutionalisation. When we interpret one of the most important phenomenon of current times namely globalisation, we can clearly see how political, economic and socio-cultural systems are shaping their institutional base on the principle of isomorphism. The crises of systems force them to search for apparent successful and best practices elsewhere to shape their institutions. The following table 1.1, explaining the institutional change process, further elucidates the point made above.

Table 1.1: Institutional Change Processes

Stages		Description
I.	Destabilisation	Established practices are subjected to perceived crises, felt needs, and precipitating jolts arising out of social upheavals, regulatory changes, obsolete disrupted technologies, competitive disadvantage,
II.	Deinstitutionalisation	New players emerge, existing consensus is disturbed in established institutional framework

III.	Pre-institutionalisation	Organisations and individuals innovate on their own solutions that are viable in response to local problems and conditions
IV.	Theorization	Abstract categories are developed and specified, and cause-effect chains are elaborated, so that local deviations can be internalised justifying the failure of status-quo and need for replacement.
V.	Diffusion	The local innovations are spread for gaining consensus and achieving legitimacy based on their assumed pragmatic value
VI.	Full Institutionalisation	Cognitive legitimacy is attained as a function of the density of adoption, with the result that the ideas are taken for granted as natural and expected, and thus uncritically accepted.

Source: Royston Greenwood, Roy Suddaby and C.R.Hinings (2002) 'Theorizing change: The Role of Professional Association in the Transformation of Institutionalised Fields', Academy of Management Journal', 45, p 59-61.

Activity 1

Cite an example how political, economic and socio cultural systems are shaping their institutional base on the principle of isomorphism.

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1.3 THE SOCIETY – ENVIRONMENT – ORGANISATION INTERFACE

The Sociotechnical theory of the Tavistock group conceived "enterprises as an open system that engages in continuing exchanges with other enterprises, institutions, and individuals in its external environment. Its sociotechnical system must permit it to maintain a steady state in which work can be done in the face of changing environmental circumstances. This open systems approach contrasts with that of closed systems, which regard the enterprise as 'sufficiently independent to allow most of its problems to be analysed with reference to its internal structure and without reference to its external environment' (Eric Tryst 1969). Eric Tryst and Fred Emery also identified four types of environments to an enterprise basing on a continuum of minimum and slow to maximum and fast changes namely; *placid random*, *placid clustered*, *disturbed reactive* and *turbulent* field. The environmental changes are driven by the political, economic, social and cultural changes that happen on account of either natural evolutionary causes or revolutionary processes like technological, ideological other and man made changes. Industrialisation, globalisation are examples of the latter category. The organisations respond by adaptation strategies of their own.

James D. Thompson (1967) first provided for four categories of environment and suggests different boundary spanning activities by organisations which are provided in the Table 2.

Table 1.2: Types of Environment

Types of Environment	Organisational boundary Spanning Actions suitable for the environment
Homogeneous-stable	A few functional divisions utilizing standardized rules or adaptation
Heterogeneous- stable	A variety of functional divisions matched to homogeneous segments of the task environment and utilising rules extensively
Homogeneous-variable	Geographically decentralized divisions concerned with planning responses to change
Heterogeneous- variable	Divisions functionally differentiated to match segments of the task environment and decentralised to monitor and plan

Second, he provides for a framework on organisation-environment interface in an open system perspective in the following postulates-

- 1) Variations in environmental conditions will bring about changes in decision strategies for input and output components of the firm.
- 2) Variations in environmental conditions can penetrate the input and output 'buffers' and cause changes in the technical core of the organisation.
- 3) Variations in environmental conditions will alter the dependence of input, technical core and output components relative to one another.
- 4) When input or output components transfer uncertainty rather than absorb it, there will be conflict among input, technical core, and output components.

Then he suggests four methods such as buffering, smoothing, forecasting, and rationing, by which technological core can seal off itself from environmental changes. These he suggests as organisational actions.

Burns and stalker 1994 commented that, "As the rate of change increases in the technical field, so does the number of occasions which demand quick and effective interpretation between people working in different parts of the system. As the rate of change increases in the market field, so does the need to multiply the points of contact between the concern and the markets it wishes to explore and develop". Then, they suggested Mechanistic systems and organic systems as two polarities, the former suitable for stable conditions, and the latter suitable for changes that introduce new problems and unforeseen contingencies.

Paul Lawrence and Jay Lorsch (1967) defined organisation under contingency theory as "A system of interrelated behaviours of people who are performing a task has been differentiated into several distinct subsystems, each subsystem performing a portion of the task, and the efforts of each being integrated to achieve effective performance of the system." The term 'differentiation' is explained as 'the state of segmentation of the organisational system into subsystems, which tends to develop particular attributes in relation to the requirements posed by its relevant external environment. The term integration is explained as 'the quality of the state of collaboration that exists among departments that is required to achieve unity of effort by the demands of the environment.'

The above mentioned theories explain the interrelatedness between society,

environment and organisation. They also highlight the kinds of environment and the way organisations respond to the vagaries of change happening in the environment on account of ever changing political, economic, social and cultural conditions.

Activity 2

Explain the relationship between society, environment and organisation with examples.

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1.4 SOCIAL PROCESSES AS SOURCES OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Human behaviour is a learnt behaviour and hence has scope for continuous learning process involving unlearning and relearning. Socialisation, acculturation and assimilation facilitate human learning at all life stages. Social institutions like family and groups; political institutions and economic institutions facilitate the socialisation process. Individuals as organisms shape their behaviour based on their experiential and empirical exposure.

Society is a web of social relationships basic to which is human relations. Human relations are inter-personal relationship between individual and individual, individual and group, and group and group in both formal and informal settings (Elton Mayo 1946). The social processes shape the web of social relations (McIver and Page). These processes are contact, adjustment and accommodation, conflict, competition, cooperation, assimilation, acculturation and socialisation.

Contact: Three types of contacts are identified in social process, namely; physical contact indicating proximity, social contact based on mutuality, awareness and cognition and psychological contact indicating propinquity. An employee, only after selection, becomes a member of the organisation and develops all the three levels of contacts gradually with structures, technology and people- the three components of an organisation. The best behaviour of involvement and commitment are achieved when the individual employee develops propinquity i.e. psychological contact with the job, fellow employees, and the organisational goals. This social process of contact thus indicates the level of human behaviour which on the other extreme can be indicated by lack of contact (connectivity) leading to apathy, indifference and estrangement.

Contact is an important social process that facilitates group formation. Formal groups are formed by the organisation depending on the 'contact sets' required by the interrelatedness between jobs as a contributing factor towards the strengthening of organisational structure and achievement of organisational objectives. Team building exercises like quality circles, cross-functional teams, and project teams further crystalize the formal group processes through contact

as a binding force. The informal group processes, a reality propagated by Elton Mayo and his associates after the famous Hawthorne Experiments and its internal processes explained by the group dynamics theory of Kurt Lewin, emerge -though fluidly- based on contact as a foundation principle. The interpersonal relations in informal groups are shaped by proximity and propinquity developed through value systems formed by cognition, awareness and mutuality. Thus, contact as a social process is an important source of human behaviour at work.

Adjustment-Accommodation is an important set of social processes which indicates the human tendency to accept and live with unfavourable, non-conducive contradictions that is a reality both in society and organisations. Adjustment is the preliminary stage of accepting the contradictions and putting up with them as a minimum level of 'living and letting others live'. Accommodation is the higher level of accepting and compromising with the contradictions as an unavoidable necessity failing which the 'actor' knows that everything would collapse to the detriment of oneself and others. Human behaviour i.e. tendency and capability to develop compatibility with unfavourable conditions arises out of this social process

Conflict is a significant social process which reflects in human behaviour. Conflict is endemic and sometimes essential. When there is maladjustment of and lack of accommodation between interests and goals, conflict arises. Conflict may occur at intra-personal level in terms of stress caused by organisational conditions; or in the form of approach-approach, approach-avoidance and avoidance-avoidance goal conflict, or person-role conflict (Fred Luthans). It may arise at interpersonal level, between person and group, group and group, and at organisational level. Conflict is ingrained in organisations. The example of Union-Employer conflict, not only get limited to employment relations but also becomes representative of class conflict. Thus conflict in society may find way to the organisation. However, conflict left unaddressed is inimical to any system. Win-Lose, Lose-Lose and Win-Win are conflict handling strategies adopted by parties to the conflict. Though win-lose is the logic of game theory of conflict, more disastrous outcome can be from the 'lose-lose' positioning. Win-win positioning though desirable, seldom is achievable. 'Loss is essential to gain' defeats logically the win-win proposition underlying which there is a loss-loss possibility.

Conflict is considered by some as having positive value. In 'group think' phenomenon it is considered disastrous if all people think alike. Differences in opinion as embodiment of differences in goals and interests are considered essential for conflict to manifest. Latent conflict is more injurious than open and manifest conflict. Once conflict becomes open, the handling will be easier. But allowing unmanageable levels of conflict is cancerous for any system. Conflict stages like pre-conflict, conflict and conflict aftermath need to be addressed as there is a 'domino effect' in conflict, which means that conflict gives rise to conflict.

Competition is another social process which has relevance in all human activities in the society and organisation. As resources are few and claimants are many, competition emerges to get the claim. But even a bird has to rise early to get the worm. It is the presence of rule that makes the difference between the

competition and conflict. Simply framing of rules may not make competition healthy. The rules shall be mutually agreed upon; institutional arrangements shall be made in order to implement the rules to the satisfaction of all. If not, competition may brew into conflict. Organisation initiated competition systems are promotions, performance pay etc.; which unless administered through explainable organisational justice mechanisms may give rise to conflict. Competition has become a global process testing the competitive advantage of corporates.

Cooperation is a positive and desirable social process which shapes human behaviour towards affiliation, coalition and co-optation. An overdose of conflict, howsoever endemic it might be, is to the detriment of organised society. So, cooperative structures and systems are developed both as reactive and proactive approach to conflict. Conflict reduction and maximisation of cooperation is the symptom of healthy organised societies. Structure-functions, processes, systems are institutionalised to bring orderliness in society as well as organisations. There can be degrees of cooperation in terms of loyalty, involvement and commitment which have behavioural implications.

Assimilation is a social process that promotes taking in and absorbing external stimulus into the system. It is a psychological, social and cultural tendency and ability to receive new facts and realities and internalise into the behaviour patterns of the recipient. Starting from ethnic societies to individuals including organisations consistently undergo this process. Assimilation is central to learning. As learning is crucial to behavior modification, assimilation plays a seminal role in organisational dynamics. It is the process on which the processes of acculturation and socialisation rest.

Acculturation and Socialisation processes contribute to the perpetuation, self-renewal, and continuity of society. Individuals, groups, communities, institutions, organisations and one and all in a system undergo these processes for growth and development. Change as is endemic, is achieved by forces of acculturation and socialisation. All those in a society find it imperative to change and evolutionary long lasting change happens through these processes which make the adaptation easy through the process of assimilation.

The whole gamut of social processes needs to be viewed from an integrated perspective. Contact as the first process brings the individual entities in relation with other individuals and collective entities. How to fine tune contacts to one's advantage is learnt by processes of assimilation, acculturation and socialisation through the experiences of adjustment and accommodation, failure of which exposes one to conflicts. Competition and cooperation are soothers which attempt to reduce conflict and improve compatibility in the systems. Assimilation, acculturation and socialisation are neither the last processes nor do they happen at the end. Rather, these processes occur at every stage continuously and persistently. The inter-play between various social processes in a given space and time, result into learnt behaviour patterns of an 'organism' in the society which shapes one's values, personality and culture. These reflect in organisational behaviour which includes both the behaviour of people in organisations (micro OB) and behaviour of organisation in total environment (Macro OB).

‘Individual differences’ is an important concept of OB. The ‘organism’ is always exposed to diverse and varied socio-cultural, political and economic systems. It would internalise values, customs, belief patterns, culture through processes of assimilation, acculturation and socialisation, which would shape the idiosyncratic behavior patterns. When organisations have to manage behaviour of people at work they have to manage diversities. In the management of people at work, knowledge of social processes is, hence essential.

1.5 PROCESS LEVELS FROM INDIVIDUAL (MICRO) LEVEL TO SOCIETY (MACRO) LEVEL

Pareek (2007) observes that ‘in an organisation, several levels operate simultaneously, from individuals who work in the organisation to the whole society, which constitutes the context in which the organisation functions’. He identifies nine levels between the micro level (individual) and macro level (the society). Different processes operate at different levels in an integrated framework. This is given in Table 1.3 below:

Level	Nature of the process
The Person: Existential Process	It is a process of self-awareness of one’s organisational and social reality as to how he/she is living and working in with others for self-actualisation and personal goals.
The Inter-person: Empathic Process	This is a relationship building process between two entities for mutuality. Facilitators are collaboration and co-operation; polluters are conflict and unhealthy competition. Sensitivity to others is the cardinal principle.
The Role: Coping Process	Through role individuals come in contact with others and the organisation. Role difficulty, ambiguity, role conflicts arising out of role overlapping need to be coped. Organisations should ensure role clarity.
The Group: Building Process	There are functional and hierarchical formal groups which need to be built to form an integrated structure. Norms and traditions emerge naturally in a group process including informal clusters. Team building is a group process.
The Intergroup: Collaborative Process	Equifinality in a system demands collaboration between heterogeneous groups. Conflict and unhealthy competition are likely in groups. Preventing these negatives and promoting collaboration is crucial.
The Organisation: Growth Process	Organisations are organic entities that can learn from past, change currently and develop in future. In this effort, organisations shall integrate individual interests with that of groups and organisational goals. Self- renewal on a continuous basis is imperative.
The Organisation- Environment interface: Influence Process	Organisations are influenced by social, political and economic changes defining its environment; while being in transaction with the society due to resource dependency. The organisation shall proactively visualise the environmental changes and pressures to create strategies independently or in coalition with other organisations, for responding to positive pressures and insulating from negative pressures. Reactive fire-fighting approach will be damaging to the organisation.
The Community: Process of Social- Awareness	Organisation-community interface is based on mutual social awareness of both. Direct pressure and impact of organisation on the neighbouring community or vice versa is immediately felt by the other. CSR is currently propagated to smoothen this interface through ‘conscientisation’ i.e. increasing awareness about social realities and developing a positive self-concept in relation to such reality.

The Society: Value Process	The most relevant processes at the level of the society are related to values and power. Power is the ability to influence various forces in society towards achieving the greatest good of all. But, power is always not positively exercised. Values then play a role to bring power on to the desired path. Societal values, organisational values and individual values need a synergetic integration for this purpose and Social processes of assimilation, acculturation and socialisation play an important role in transmitting and sustaining right values.
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Source: Compiled from Udai Pareek, 'Understanding Organisational behaviour'; Oxford University Press, 2007, pp. 13-17

These processes are not to be understood in isolation. There is an intricate relationship between these. Organisations can practice OB in a better way once they understand these relations.

1.6 CHANGING SOCIETY AND ORGANISATIONS IN INDIA

OB processes need to be understood in the socio-historical perspective of a country. Some of the discernible features of Indian social processes and other institutions over a span of time are presented in Table 4 below. The table gives a glimpse of Indian history and the important social, political and economic events characterising the people and society. It is self-explanatory and needs no elaboration excepting for the fact that the people, systems and processes have become vibrant over years with a definite trend towards making India a happening country and a global player.

Table 1.4: Indian Social Processes

Period	Major events and General perspective of social processes and other institutions
Pre-Muslim period	Philosophical, intellectual and spiritual pursuits flourishing at the cost of military capabilities due to fragmented kingdoms
Muslim Period	Invasions with twin purposes of plundering wealth and forced propagation of Islam which was possible due to the moderate secular philosophical base and weak military powers.
Initial British Colonial Period	Expansion of Christianity, imperialism, and ultimate subjugation of passive, subdued and non-vibrant people. Scientific temperament, infrastructure, new institutions and social reforms emerging due to expanded use of English language among native elite groups.
Later British Colonial Period	Anti- colonial movement led by native and British educated Indian leaders supported by politically activated and socially aroused people and emergence of indigenous business families.
Initial Post- Independence period	Heavy industrialisation under public sector needing trained and educated human resource and consequent growth of education. Political hegemony. Unionisation and increased union militancy.
The period of social upheaval and political movements	Privatisation of banks, poor performance of public sector; protests under J.P, movement leading to National Emergency curbing all liberties of people. Weakening of trade unions.

The post-emergency period	The resurrection of a vibrant democracy with rise of new political coalitions against hegemonic rule indicating political maturity of people. Proliferation of civil society, human rights and NGOs along with union activism giving new voices to people. Poor economic performance due to political instability.
The New Economic Policy	Economic liberalisation to save the country from impending disaster arising out of low foreign exchange reserves leading to Balance of payment problem. Structural adjustments leading to rationalisation of manpower, public sector disinvestment, privatisation leading to opening of markets having impacts on the indigenous economic players from MNCs
Post- Globalisation scenario	Jobless economic growth due to economic and labour reforms, inflation and low purchasing power parity, Entrepreneurship grows in informal and start- up sectors due to technical exposure of large section of human resource. Resourcefulness and competencies increase with growing competition as well as demand-supply gap in low cost, high quality manpower

In the changed context in India some paradoxical paradigm shifts in social institutions and processes can be identified.

- Indigenous development adopting models of western intellectual rationality.
- Emerging new norms and belief patterns promoting culture of consumerism and change in life style towards materialism, while old norms of self – sufficiency, satisfaction and spiritualism are getting eroded.
- Disintegration of joint families and neglect of family and social values while strengthening the organisational values and values leading to individualism as against pluralism.
- Old social institutions like caste and hierarchical structures are dissipating; but new dependency on collective institutions like civil society, human rights and NGO groups is increasing.
- Greater convergence of role of male and female is evident; but gender discrimination and bias has not reduced.
- Ascribed status giving way to achieved status in economic sphere; while political system still clings on to ascribed status as evident from the family monopoly.
- Diversity is increasing with the same tempo as intolerance and narrow parochialism.

These contradictions happen in vibrant and fast changing societies. One has to keep them in mind while analysing human behaviour at work.

1.7 SUMMARY

The open systems concept indicates that all systems are related to and dependent on one another directly or indirectly. For civilised living organised systems are essential. Society is the largest system of which organisations (socio-cultural,

political and economic) are sub systems. There is resource dependency between organisations that establishes their interface. The society manages its interface with organisations through institutionalisation. There are differences of approach between old institutional and neo institutional thinkers. Society representing pluralist interests can impose institutions on organisations is the focus of old institutionalists; whereas participatory institutionalisation is advocated by the neo-institutionalists. The interface between society and organisation is intervened by environment which stems from the social institutions and directly impacts the organisation. Various shades of thought describe this interface examining types of environmental changes and responses of the organisations. The social processes regulating the human relations and behaviour in the larger society play a significant and similar role in organisations, justifying the claim that 'organisations are miniature society'. In understanding, analysing, predicting and managing human behaviour at work i.e. micro OB as well as the organisations' behaviour in the larger environment (Macro OB), the knowledge of social processes is essential.

1.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) Write short notes on Macro and Micro OB explaining the relevance of social processes in both.
- 2) What are the characteristics of open system?
- 3) How institutionalisation plays a significant in developing and maintaining interfaces between various systems?
- 4) Explain the institutionalisation process suggested by neo institutionalists.
- 5) What are the institutional changes in Indian scenario?
- 6) Explain the intricate nature of social processes as they shape the behaviour of units in a system and impact on changes in behaviour.

1.9 FURTHER READINGS/ REFERENCES

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UNIT 2 **APPROACHES TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR**

Objectives

After going through this unit you should be able to understand:

- meaning of and approaches to Organisational Behaviour (OB);
- OB components and models;
- systems view of OB;
- components of formal organisation system; and
- model for management of OB

Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Meaning of and Approaches to Organisational Behaviour (OB)
- 2.3 OB Components and Models
- 2.4 Systems View of OB
- 2.5 Components of Formal Organisation System
- 2.6 OB Models
- 2.7 Managing Organisational Behaviour
- 2.8 Summary
- 2.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 2.10 Further Readings/ References

2.1 INTRODUCTION

We have examined the open system and institutional perspectives of Society and Organisation; the society-environment-organisation interface; social processes as sources of human behavior in general and at work; process levels from individual (micro) level to Society (Macro) level; and changing Society and Organisations in India in the previous unit. In this unit we will discuss the conceptual framework of OB, its systems view, and components of Formal Organisation System. As OB is an applied science a model guiding the learners to choose their preferred managerial style is given at the end.

2.2 MEANING OF AND APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR (OB)

OB is the body of knowledge and people skills (Robinson: 1993) that helps managers to **understand, analyze, predict, and manage or control** (Fred Luthans: 2000) human behaviour at work. The body of knowledge is enriched by social sciences such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics,

philosophy, politics, law, ethics and moral sciences, there by resorting to an inter-disciplinary approach. In a limited way biological sciences like human anatomy and genetics, and physical and environmental sciences have influenced the OB theory.

The inter-disciplinary approach helps to understand and analyze the causes and nature of human behaviour. These two levels are reactive i.e. action taken after the behaviour is manifest. They work upon the notion that 'behaviour is caused'. The OB precepts are used to know the 'why and what' part of human behavior at work. No doubt that this is the foundation on which the prediction and control of behaviour rests.

The human or people skills of managers make use of OB as an applied science in order to proactively predict and control human behaviour in organisations. The basic notion is that causes of behaviour may not be always traced to organisational conditions. The social influences, group norms and personal attributes and values which shape the 'individual differences' could also be contributory. While managers to some extent can address to the human behaviour by associating it with organisational causes, they cannot change the social, group and individual causes. The prediction of human behaviour pattern is an area which can rely upon the causative aspects of behaviour, but the control of behaviour needs a fully proactive approach that has to aim at '*managing consequences of behaviour*'. Here the OB processes are used for developing the 'how to manage' part of human behaviour at work.

Besides the inter-disciplinary approach, OB is enriched by the Human Resources, Contingency and Systems approaches. Human Resource approach is developmental contributing to individual, group and organisational development. The Contingency approach is based on situational variations involving actors, time and space dynamics. Open systems approach combines all these approaches. So, the systems approach is adopted for the study of OB which provides for a rich crop of strategies to refine and motivate human behavior at work. Unit 1 has details about the open system perspective of Organisations.

2.3 OB COMPONENTS AND MODELS

OB combines two terms namely; a) organization and b) behaviour.

a) Organisation: concept, structure and processes

Organization is "the pattern of ways in which large numbers of people, too many to have intimate face to face contact with all others, and engaged in a complexity of tasks, relate themselves to each other in the conscious, systematic establishment and accomplishment of mutually agreed purposes" (J.M.Pfiffner & F.P.Sherwood). It is also known as "the rational coordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal, through division of labor and function and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility" (Edgar H.Schein). It is also described as "a continuing system of differentiated and coordinated human activities utilizing, transforming and welding together a specific set of human, material, capital, ideational and natural resources into a unique problem solving whole; engaged in satisfying particular human needs in interaction with other systems of human activities

and resources in its environment (E.W.Bakke). These three definitions define organisation as a structure, process and system respectively.

Organization is represented by pyramid design comprising people, structure and technology as depicted below in Figure 2.1.

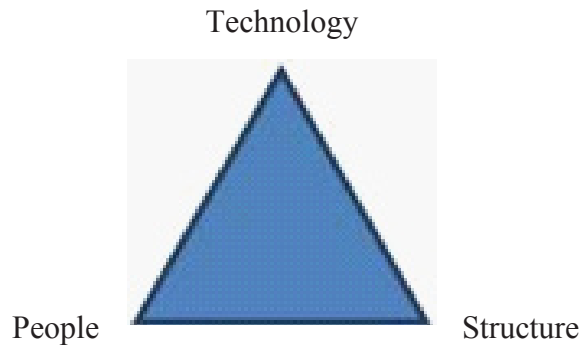


Figure 2.1: Organisations

Individual differences, whole person (Gestalt theory i.e. the whole to be greater than the sum of its parts), and human dignity (Keith Davis) are the features of People component. These three indicate that although management generally tries for 'a fit for all' institutionalization; when it comes to controlling human behaviour at work, 'individual differences' of each organism be it individual or group or organisation (as in an open system, organisation deals with many organisations and the environment) shall be taken into account. At the same time the 'whole person' combining the, personal, psychological, emotional, spiritual, social, cultural, economic, and political aspects of an organism need to be identified and addressed. Human dignity and basic human rights need to be protected in class and power permeated organisations.

The machines, tools and methods of production along with the technical know- how and skills indicating the human face of technology compose the Technology component. Technological determinism meaning that technology determines all aspects of organisational structuring and functioning is greatly emphasized. It determines the interface between mechanistic and organic structures and processes. Ergonomics (man-working environment adjustment); human engineering (man-machine compatibility), are area addressed by technology. Technology also determines the peoples' skill, job positioning and status structure.

Organisation Structure is created by the interface between People and Technology. It embodies authority-subordinate structure reflected in the hierarchy; functional specialization and division of labour depicted in its lateral or horizontal form. It also envisages the vision, mission, goal, policies and rules providing the energy and purpose to the structure. The authority – subordinate vertical structure is based on certain principles as given below.

- The 'chain of command' determines the flow of direction or line of command.
- The 'Span of Control' identifies the ratio of the subordinates to superiors.
- Authority is institutional and not personal.

- The CEO has delegated authority from the institutional framework.
- Authority generates responsibility, so greater the authority more the responsibility. The CEO cumulatively is ultimately responsible for every act of omission or commission in the organisation.
- Authority can be delegated, but not the responsibility.
- If authority is more than responsibility, then it may be abused. If responsibility is more than authority then it cannot be complied with. Even though, authority generates responsibility, a mechanism should be there to maintain a balance. Because, authority has a tendency to transgress the limits. Underuse of authority is also unproductive.
- Authority flows from top to the bottom. The 'acceptance theory' of Chester I Barnard and 'Giving of orders' principle of Mary Parker Follett suggest that if the authority and orders are accepted by the subordinates, it becomes more effective. It gives a 'bottom to top' scheme of authority. But in organisational process it is not feasible proposition. It holds good to the extent of legitimacy and effectiveness of authority.
- Accountability establishes linkages in terms of subordinates' compliance to the authority and gauging the extent of compliance. It is a 'bottom-up' process.
- The horizontal structure is devised on division of labour and functional specialisation. Decentralisation and coordination are the forces which sustain this structure.

The above mentioned elements of organising structure process emanate from bureaucratic principles (Max Weber). He propounded Bureaucracy as an ideal and rational structure tested over a period of time and space. Specialization and division of labour, and employment based on technical qualification; positions arranged in a hierarchy where in promotions are made according to seniority and/or achievement, 'ideal' bureaucrat at the apex, who is protected against arbitrary dismissal and expected to maintain impersonal relations; and a system of impersonal rules are the features of Bureaucracy.

Bureaucracy has been profusely criticized. Karl Marx believed that bureaucrats are used by dominant capitalistic class to control and exploit the lower working class. He believed that bureaucracy can be as effective as the person at the apex. Parkinson's law that, 'bureaucratic staff increases in inverse proportion to the amount of work done'; and Peter's principle that 'in bureaucracy people rise to the level of incompetence' indicate the weakness of bureaucracy.

Dysfunctions are seen in Bureaucratic functions namely:

- Specialization and division of Labour apparently increases efficiency and productivity; but at the same time it creates conflict between the specialized units to the detriment of organization like Line-staff conflict.
- The functional attributes of hierarchy are that it maintains unity of command, coordinates activities of personnel, reinforces authority, responsibility and accountability chain, and serves as the formal system of communication.

In theory it has both downward and upward orientation, but in practice it has turned out to be having only downward emphasis. Thus, individual initiative and participation are often blocked. Upward communication is impeded and there is no recognition of informal communication.

- Ideal bureaucrat never exists really. Nobody can be really impersonal and the whole success of bureaucracy rests on the flimsy impersonal conduct of the ideal bureaucrat.
- Rules are supposed to be inviolate and non-discriminatory. But seldom are they. Rules have earned the notorious distinction of red tape and often become more important than goals. Delay and distortion in communication become a rule by itself under bureaucracy.

The modern organisation designs

Modern organization designs are conceived due to the changes that have occurred on account of globalization and resultant mergers, and expansions. The philosophical challenges to bureaucracy also induced its reduced importance. The philosophical challenges are as follows.

- Bureaucracy does not allow personal growth; expects conformity and group think; does not take into account the informal organization; does not have conflict resolving mechanism to resolve role conflict (Robert L. Kahn), line-staff conflict (Peter F. Drucker); and above all, it is so rigid structure that it cannot assimilate new technology and change. So, Warren G. Bennis, a strong critic of bureaucracy had predicted its doom because it never bothered about the exchange balance between the organisation and individual.
- The Group theory of Rensis Likert highlights the role relations resulting into more group to group relations rather than the individual-individual relations. It breaks both the horizontal boundaries and vertical linkages in the line form of hierarchical bureaucracy (Linking Pin Theory).
- The organization as open system almost declared the death knell of bureaucracy by giving importance to not only internal systems, but also external systems. The organization-environment dependency and the information processing imperatives also expected the organization structure to be more flexible.
- The contingency approach of Lawrence and Lorsch outlined the important role of organization in differentiation and integration as strategies adopted by them to adjust with vagaries of change. Galbraith expanded it still further by linking certainty and uncertainty faced by organizations with mechanistic and organic structures respectively. Duncan in his decision tree model conceived simple (low uncertainty) and complex (high uncertainty) environments being addressed by static and dynamic organization structures.

Project Design- Project is a time bound prioritized goal. Every organization will have such goals which are distinguished from generic policy objectives and addressed. There could be many projects at any given point of time. The project staff would emanate from the functional structure and assimilate back into it

after completion of the project. Thus it breaks all the tenets of bureaucracy, inbreeding great flexibility in the organization structure and even breaking the line-staff dichotomy. Projects require inter functional and inter hierarchical integration for their successful completion. This inter-dependency requires lot of flexibility in ideation and execution. Individual, staffs, inter-mix and aggregate are some of the types of project structure.

Matrix Design- When a project structure is superimposed on the functional structure, the result is the matrix. Matrix design is largely laterally spread. It violates the hierarchy and line-staff division. It breaks informal groups which emerge out of relatively more permanent work groups. Matrix design creates a repository of specialists available in the functional structure.

Free form organization or linear structure, SBU model, Transnational or geographical model of organization structures are used by MNCs. These are largely 'modular' design with a central hub surrounded by a network of production units or outside specialist service providers. Rather than being housed under one roof or located within one organization services such as accounting, design, manufacturing of parts, marketing and distribution networks are outsourced to outside agencies that are connected electronically to a central office and expected to perform as per the standards prescribed by the main company in the mutually agreed upon job contract. This design is not only cost-effective as the expenses on machine tools, material resources are born by the contracting out company but also reduces administrative overhead cost.

Concept and approaches to the study of behaviour

Behaviour is activity directed towards goals (Paul Hersey & Ken Blanchard). Manifestation is essential to be recognized as behaviour. Latent state of mind is the psyche of which cognition is an important feature. Cognition is an inherent ability to comprehend, compare and cognize. It is the cognitive ability that receives, organizes and responds to external stimulus thereby playing a crucial role of bringing about parity between the latent state of mind and manifest behaviour. The following are some important approaches to OB.

- Sigmund Freud's model is characterized by three interrelated but often conflicting psychoanalytic frames of mind, namely Id, Ego and Superego and unconscious motivation. 'Id' is the impulse struggling for gratification; Superego is the unconscious conscience that differentiates the right and wrong and blocks the impulses of Id; and Ego is the conscious which acts as a balancing force. This inherent conflict in the intra-person explains the behavioural aberrations and clinical methods of treating mental illness came out of this model. Though it provides for a framework for analyzing behaviour at the intrapersonal level; yet it remains a 'black box' and cannot be applicable for analyzing behaviour at inter-personal, group and organisational levels. Eric Bernie's Child, Adult and Parent Ego stages (Transactional Analysis) model further explains the cognitive dissonance (Leon C. Festinger) leading to behavioural problems.
- The cognitive approach (Edward Tolman) emphasized the positive and free- will aspects of human behaviour as against Freudian obsession with negative, irrational, sexually motivated human behaviour. It explains the

intervening and mediating conditions between stimulus and behaviour in terms of expectancy.

- Behaviour is caused. Stimulus is the cause which shapes the response (manifest behaviour). It is captured by the Stimulus-Response model (S-R) espoused by the Classical Conditioning theory (Ivan Pavlov).
- Behaviour is shaped by consequences. Behavior resulting into pleasant consequences will be repeated and behaviour resulting into unpalatable consequences will extinguish. This is explained by the principle of hedonism, by the cognitive theory advanced by Edward Tolman that “behaviour is purposive” and by the more scientific explanation of Response-Stimulus model (R-S) propounded by the operant conditioning theory (B.F.Skinner).
- The Antecedents-Behaviour-Consequence (ABC) model converges the above two facets of behaviour namely “Behaviour is caused” & “Behaviour is shaped by consequences”.
- Stimulus – Organism- Response (SOR) model attempted to focus on the organism i.e. ‘individual differences’ characteristic of people, indicating the fact that same stimulus may not result in same response due to organism interventions.
- The Stimulus-Organism-Behaviour-Consequence (SOBC) model (Fred Luthans) takes the best of all models such as S-R, R-S and S-O-R inclusive of the whole person and human dignity features of people. It is captured by the Social Learning theory of Albert Bandura when he takes the position that behaviour can best be explained in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural and environmental determinants. It is represented in the figure 2.2.

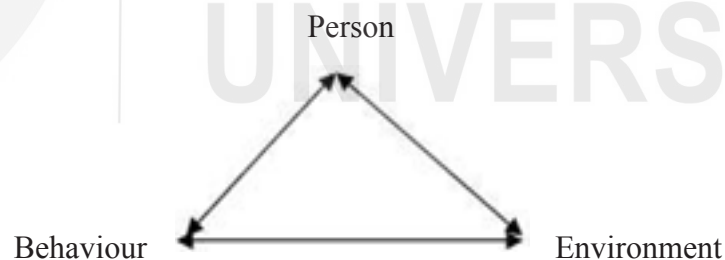


Figure: 2.2: Social Learning Theory

Activity 1

According to you, which OB model is suitable in present scenario, justify citing examples.

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2.4 SYSTEMS VIEW OF OB

The SOBC model and Social Learning theories adopt the System model of OB, which is universally accepted. The model is depicted below in Figure 2.3.

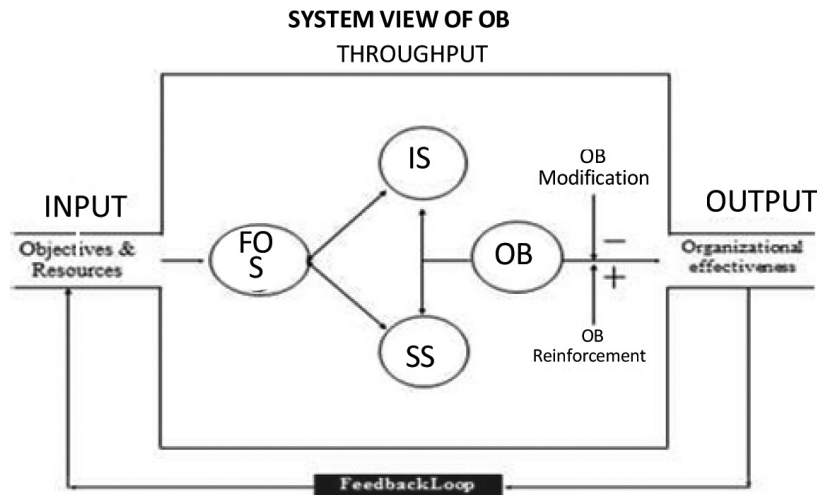


Figure 2.3: System Model of OB

Legend - FOS-Formal Organisation System, IS-Individual System, SS- Social System

The explanation of the systems model includes the following points

- Organizations have to pursue socially approved objectives.
- No organization has its own resources. These are allocated to the organization by the society to pursue socially approved objectives. Objectives and resources thus are inputs drawn by the organization from the larger society which also provides the distant and immediate environment to the organisation.
- The throughput in OB system is composed of Formal Organization System (FOS) placed in juxtaposition to Individual System (IS) and Social System (SS).
- The interface between the three in which the FOS is in the driver's seat influencing the IS and SS result into Organizational Behaviour.

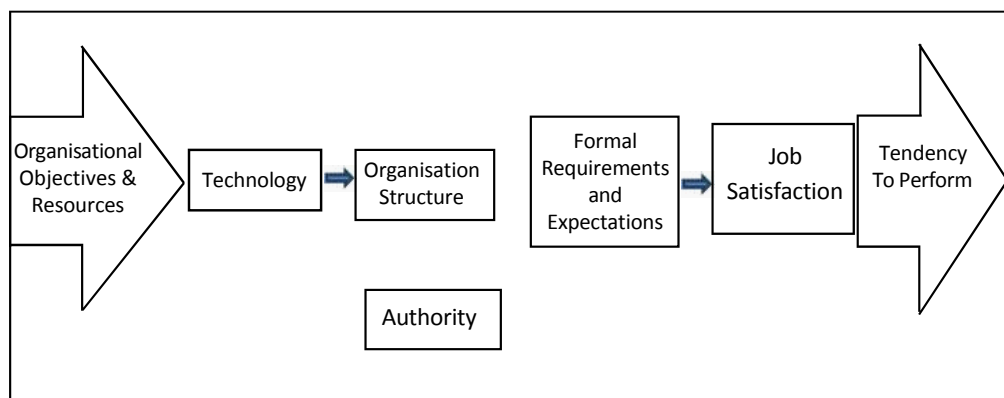


Figure 2.4: The Formal Organisation System

The explanations are as given below:

- Objectives of organization embody the inputs to the FOS.
- Technology is essential for translating the objectives into concrete results.
- The interface between technology and human resource culminate into a structure.
- The structure represents both the hierarchy and functional specialization with policies and rules binding them into an organic unity. The hierarchy defines the authority-subordinate relationship in which communication plays an important role.
- The formal requirements and expectations of the organization from its people is expressed in the vision, mission and goal statement that which is influenced both by external environment and internal imperatives.
- Authority presupposes the existence of leadership, and decision making. Leadership indicates the managerial style which is discussed below in the model given by Chris Argyris.
- Decision making process can be either unilateral or participative. Strategic decisions could be the premise of the top executives; but operational decisions can be participatory. Decision rationality, balancing organisational requirements and the interests of the employees, is crucial for the decisions to be effective.
- The role of authority is to ensure compatibility between organization's expectations and employee interests so that the organization gets the best performance from its people and the employees derive job satisfaction.
- Such a win-win situation will lead to a tendency to perform among the human resource, which is the output of the FOS.

The interface between the FOS and IS and SS happens as given in Figure 2.4.

2.6 OB MODELS

Every organization develops a particular model in which behaviour of the people takes place. This model is developed on the basis of management's assumptions about people and the vision of the management. Since these assumptions vary to a great extent, these result into the development of different organizational behaviour models (OB models).

From the very beginning of the civilized human society, two alternative approaches have been adopted for placing trust on people. One says "trust everyone unless there is a contrary evidence": another says "do not trust anyone unless there is a contrary evidence".

Naturally, interpersonal interactions take place differently under these two approaches.

Following description of the organizations is worth while to note here:

"Most of our originations tend to be arranged on the assumption that people cannot be trusted or relied on, even in tiny matters".

However, this is only one side of the coin. For example, McGregor has given theories X and Y and each theory makes assumptions which are quite contrary to each other; Argyris has given the concept of immaturity and maturity of people which also provides two opposite views about the people. Thus, OB models developed on the basis of these assumptions would show great variations. However, OB models that are in practice show some kind of continuum between these two opposite poles, though they tend to lean towards a particular pole. Davis has described four OB models which are as follows:

Autocratic Model

In the autocratic model, managerial orientation is towards power. Managers see authority as the only means to get the things done, and employees are expected to follow orders. The result is high dependence on boss. This dependence is possible because employees live on the subsistence level. The organizational process is mostly formalized; the authority is delegated by right of command over people to whom it applies. The management decides what is the best action for the employees. The model is largely based on the Theory of X assumptions of McGregor where the human beings are taken inherently distasteful to work and try to avoid responsibility. A very strict and close supervision is required to obtain desirable performance from them. Likert's management system can be compared with the model of organizational behavior. His system (exploitative authoritative) in which motivation depends on physical security and some use of desire for start and better performance is ensured through fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards; communications is mostly one-way, that is downward: there is little interaction between managers and employees.

The autocratic model represents traditional thinking which is based on the economic concept of the man. With the changing values and aspiration levels of people, this model is yielding place to others. However, this does not mean that this model is discarded in toto. In many cases; the autocratic model of organizational behaviour may be a quite useful way to accomplish performance, particularly where the employees can be motivated by physiological needs. This generally happens at lower strata of the organization.

Custodial Model

In the custodial model, the managerial orientation is towards the use of money to pay for employee benefits. The model depends on the economic resources of the organization and its ability to pay for the benefits. While the employees hope to obtain security, at the same time they become highly dependent on the organization.

An organizational dependence reduces personal dependence on boss. The employees are able to satisfy their security needs or in the context of Herzberg's theory only maintenance factors.

These employees working under custodial model feel happy, their level of performance is not very high. This resembles again to Herzberg's satisfier and dissatisfier.

Since employees are getting adequate regards and organizational security, they feel happy.

However, they are not given any authority to decide what benefits or rewards they should get. This approach is quite similar to patrimonial approach where the basic assumption is that it is the prerogative of management to decide what benefits are best suited to the employees. Such an approach is still quite common in many business organizations in India. The phenomenon is more predominant in family-managed business organizations where family characteristics have also been applied to the organizational settings. The basic ingredient of the family-managed system is that, parents decide what is good or bad for their children and managers decide what is good for their employees. From this point of view, this model is not suitable for matured employees.

Supportive Model

The supportive model organizational behaviour depends on managerial leadership rather than on the use of power or money. The aim of managers is to support employees in their achievement of results. The focus is primarily on participation and involvement of employees in managerial decision-making process. The model is based on principles of supportive relationship's of Likert, which is the basic ingredient of his system 4 (participative). Likert states that, the leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organizations each member will, in the light of his background, values and expectation views the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance. It is quite similar to the assumptions of McGregor's Theory Y. The supportive model is based on the assumptions that human beings move to the maturity level and they expect the organizational climate which supports these expectations. Various organizational processes- communication, leadership, decision-making, interaction, control, and influence- are such that, these help employees to fulfil their higher order needs such as esteem and self-actualization.

Likert has shown that, supportive model is best suited in the conditions when employees are self-motivated. Thus, this emphasizes not on the economic resources of the organization but its human aspect. Manager's role is to help employees to achieve their work rather than supervising them closely. This can be applied more fruitfully for higher level managers whose lower order needs are satisfied reasonably. Organizations with sophisticated technology and employing professional people can also apply this model for getting best out of their human resources. However, this does not mean that, this model can be applied in all circumstances. For example Davis observes that, 'the supportive model tends to be specially effective in nations with affluence and complex technology, because it appeals to higher order needs and provides intrinsic motivational factors. It may not be the best model to apply in less developed nations. Because their employees need structures who are often at lower levels and their social conditions are different. Moreover, this model can be applied more fruitfully for managerial levels as compared to operative levels. As such, the tendency of modern management is to move towards supportive model, especially for their management groups.

Collegial Model

Collegial model is an extension of supportive model. The term collegial refers

to a body of people having common purpose. Collegial model is based on the team concept in which each employee develops high degree of understanding towards others and shares common goals.

The employee response to this situation is responsibility. Employees need little direction and control from management. Control is basically through self-discipline by the team members. The organizational climate is quite conducive to self-fulfillment and self-actualization. Collegial model tends to be more useful with unprogrammed work requiring behavioural flexibility, an intellectual environment, and considerable job freedom. The various models of organizational behaviour are based on the assumption of the human characteristics and how they can work best. Since situational variables are strong factors in determining the organizational processes, managers cannot assume that a particular model is best suitable for all purposes and for all situations. Rather all the models will remain in practice and that too with considerable success. These models are basically constructed around need hierarchy. Since need hierarchy is not similar for all the employees, the same model cannot be used for all of them. The need hierarchy changes with the level of a person in the organization, level of his education, level of maturity, personality factors and the type of work environment. Considering these factors, a particular model can be applied. Organization theorists have argued that there is a tendency to move towards the adoption of supportive model because in this case people may give their best because in other models they do not find conditions conducive to give their best performance. This is why managers are taking a number of steps to humanize their organizations, such as participation, morale building, and so on to make the organizations more effective.

2.7 MANAGING ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

After understanding the theories of OB and systems model, it is pertinent that managers shall learn how to manage and control human behaviour at work to the advantage of all. Keith Davis provides for four Models of Organisational Behaviour as given in table below. Managers like any human being have mental models about people and organisations which they develop through assimilation, and socialisation. After careful perusal of the Table 2.1 given below the learning managers in the making can place their belief patterns into the framework and work upon their mental models. They should keep in mind that these four models are the essence of managerial styles in handling human behaviour developed over and learnt from history.

No model shall be conceived exclusively good or bad and always effective. Basing on the maturity of organisations and the people in it, all the models at different periods of time and situation may be helpful.

Autocratic model works with formal official authority and power is used to oblige employees to follow orders without questions and interpretation as the management implicitly assumes that it knows what is best. Management assumes that employees are passive and even resistant to organisational needs- they have to be persuaded and pushed into performance, and this is the management task (Theory X postulate of McGregor). F.W. Taylor Scientific Management largely

focused on it. Employees in turn shall be obedient and exhibit high degree of compliance i.e. takes orders and does not talk back. It has worked in history. Autocratic model combined with benevolence has been upheld as a workable method of managing.

Table 2.1: Framework and Mental Models*

Variables	Autocratic	Custodial	Supportive	Collegial
Depends on	Power	Economic Resources	Leadership	Mutual Contribution
Managerial orientation	Authority	Material Rewards	Support	Integration & Team Work
Employee orientation	Obedience	Security	Performance	Responsibility
Employee Psychological Result	Personal dependency	Organisational dependency	Participation	Self-discipline
Employee needs met	Subsistence	Maintenance & security	Higher order	Self-realization
Performance result	Minimum	Passive cooperation	Awakened drives	Enthusiasm
Morale Measure	Compliance	Satisfaction	Motivation	Commitment to task and team

A compliant employee may not talk back but cannot be stopped from ‘thought back’. Pent up feelings of frustration, insecurity and aggression sometimes erupt to the detriment of both the organisation and the employee. Satisfaction came to be an important outcome for employees under the custodial model. The managers used welfare, and HR practices to keep the employees happy. The purpose however is perhaps to add ‘organisational dependency’ atop a reduced ‘dependency on the boss’. The subordinate may extend passive cooperation under subdued conditions. Herzberg calls it hygiene factors with no motivational value and cautions that with a satisfied need being not a motivator, psychological expectations towards autonomy and challenging responsibilities may emerge.

The supportive model expects managers to give their employees more of psychological support than economic support. Rensis Likert’s ‘employee-oriented supervisor’ supporting Elton Mayo’s small work groups in a supportive role is considered more satisfying than the economic support of welfare and HR. It is the supportive leader who makes the difference in taking people along with as a motivator (Theory Y proposition of McGregor)

The collegial model readily adapts to the flexible, intellectual environment of project and matrix organisations. It promotes team work, recognises individual contributions as worthy, and instils a sense of self-discipline.

To conclude, it needs appreciation that all these models have relevance depending on the situational dynamics, maturity of ‘actors’ and above all the changing contexts.

2.8 SUMMARY

OB is the body of knowledge and people skills that helps managers to understand, analyse, predict, manage and control human behaviour at work. OB combines

*Source: Keith Davis, Human Relations at Work: The Dynamics of OB, 1967.

two components namely organisation and behaviour. The organisation comprises of people, structure and technology. There are few established models of OB which is components live person, environment and behaviour. The systems model of OB is universally accepted and it dwells around a process consistency formal organisation system, individual system and social system. The input is objectives and resources and the output as organisational effectiveness.

2.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) Explain the concept of and approaches to Organisational Behaviour (OB)
- 2 Discuss the concept and features of bureaucratic and modern Organisations
- 3) Discuss the models of OB. How the systems model is important and what are its components?
- 4) Explain the Components of Formal Organisation System
- 5) If you are required to manage human behaviour at work which model for management of OB you would adopt and why?

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UNIT 3 EVOLUTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Objectives

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- trace the early development of relevant conceptual foundation of Organization Behavior.
- acquire knowledge about the leading contributors in the field of Organization Behavior.
- understand the classic theories and approaches towards Organization Behavior by early thinkers.

Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 The Classical movement
- 3.3 Social Man Theory
- 3.4 Behavioural Movement
- 3.5 Human Relations Movement
- 3.6 Neo-Human Relations
- 3.7 Behavioral Science Theorists
- 3.8 Summary
- 3.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 3.10 Further Reading/ References

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In earlier units we understood the concept and approaches to understand organizational behavior. In order to understand further how the discipline of organizational behaviour grew, it is necessary to know the evolution of organizational behaviour. By understanding the evolution you will be able to trace the rules and regulation to standardized and repetitive tasks an assembly lines being replaced with team based work units.

Three individuals played important role in influencing the discipline of Organizational behaviour. They are Adam Smith, Charles Babbage, and Robert Owen.

Adam Smith was the first one who said that by dividing different tasks organizations can gain in correcting them at the earliest. This he called as **Division of Labour** and also called as work specialization.

Smith's thinking helped the organizations that division of labour increased productivity by increasing each worker's skill and dexterity by saving time.

This helped the organizations in maintaining time loss and in creation of labour saving interventions and machinery.

Charles Babbage

Though Charles Babbage advocated Smith's Division of labour, he added certain merits that accrue from division of labour. They are:

1. It reduces the time needed for learning a job .
2. It reduced the waste of material during the learning stage.
3. It allows for the attainment of high skill levels.
4. It allows a more careful matching of people's skills and physical abilities with specific tasks.

He also proposed that the economies from specialization should be as important as doing mental work with reference to physical labour. In recent years we take the core (specialization) as expertise among the professionals. If you look at doctors, they have different expertise to treat patients with different ailments like Dermatologist, Physician, Gynecologists etc. Therefore, when you look at the organizations around you realize whether they are manufacturing or service industries they make wide use of division of labour.

Robert Owen

He played a important role in the history of organizational behaviour. He was the first industrialists to recognize how the practices adopted in the factories are demeaning to workers. Repulsed by these practices like employing young children below the age of ten, thirteen hour work days, unhygienic working conditions he became a reformer. He argued with factory owners for treating their equipment better than their employees. He also criticized them for buying best machines and to run them employing cheap labour. He argued that investment on employees is necessary for profitability of management and to end human misery.

He was more than hundred years ahead of his time when he propagated in 1825, for regulated house of work, child labour laws, public education, providing meals at work and business involvements in community projects.

3.2 THE CLASSICAL MOVEMENT

The classical era is from 1900 to mid 1930s. In this period the first general theories of management began to evolve. The classical contributors are Frederick Taylor, Henri Fayol, Max Weber, who laid the foundation for the current management practices.

This approach viewed an organization in terms of its formal structure and purpose. The focus is on work planning, technical skills, management principles, and assumption of logic and rationality in behaviour at work.

The approach emphasizes defining a clear organizational purpose, laying out specific objectives, and aligning responsibilities across all levels of the

organization as key to improved effectiveness. Managers are advised to define duties and responsibilities and achieve work specialization through division of labour and coordination. Hierarchy of management and formal organizational relationships are key features of organizations in this approach.

Two main theories under the classical approach are:

- a) Scientific management
- b) Bureaucracy

The Scientific Management Theory

F. W. Taylor (1856–1917), known as the ‘father’ of scientific management, focussed on finding out one best way to perform a job. He divided a job into a set of tasks and applied a scientific method to define the best possible way of doing each task in the job.

He timed each way of doing a particular task and rearranged them to create the most efficient set of tasks to complete a job.

His approach aimed to make work more motivating and efficient while compensating fairly workers based on complexity of jobs performed by workers. The key principles of the scientific management theory were:

- scientific approach for designing every job
- scientific approach to selection, training and development of the workers
- cooperation with the workers to do work in the most effective way
- the division of work and responsibility between management and the workers

Evaluation of scientific management theory

- Repetitive work and less skills learnt on the job
- Workers treated same as other factors of production and were viewed in isolation than as groups
- Production managers acquired a high level of uncontrolled power
- Dissatisfaction among union and non-union members for heavily controlled work.

Relevance of scientific management theory

- Importance to human behaviour at work
- Workers viewed as rational, economic beings with underlying motivations such as higher incentives for higher output
- Relatively better industrial harmony through higher wages from increased output, elimination of physical burnout, matching work with skills, better coordination between management and workers.

Activity 1

Describe the benefits of scientific management theory.

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Administrative Theory

This theory proposes universal functions that managers perform and principles that constitute good management practice. The major contributor to this theory was Henry Fayol being contemporary to Taylor, Fayol proposed that all managers perform five management functions. They plan organize, command, coordinative and control. These functions are universally accepted across any organization for any manager to perform. He argued that management was an activity common to all types of organizations. He proposed 14 principles of managements.

1. Division of labor: enhanced levels of efficiency through division of work load, resulting in reduced time for final outcome, less supervision required and develops expertise.
2. Authority: the right to give orders should always carry responsibility fitting to its privilege.
3. Discipline: relies on respect for the rules, policies and agreements that govern an organization. Clear and fair presentation of all agreements between an organization and its employees.
4. Unity of command: each employee takes work instructions only from one superior, thus eliminating doubt and dispute.
5. Unity of direction: one manager for each organizational plan and a single plan for functioning within the organization those deal with similar goals.
6. Subordination of individual interest to the common good: achieving organizational goals to be prioritized than the personal and group ones.
7. Remuneration: wages should be distributed fairly and impartially to all the employees and supervisors.
8. Centralization: decision making in hands of superiors, but the decision making levels should be left to the contingency factors of the organization so as to allow the managers and subordinates to equally contribute, no situation is ideal whether centralization or decentralization all depending upon the situation.
9. Scalar chain: the lines of organizational hierarchy and lines of authority for communication should be specified clearly and followed at all times.

10. Order: there should be right place for everything (materials) and everyone (people) at the right time. Employees to be posted at the jobs most suitable to them.
11. Equity: employees should be treated with kindness and justice.
12. Stability of tenure: the employee population should be stable so that people can learn the nature of their jobs and the larger context within which their jobs are performed.
13. Initiative: implementable creativity should be encouraged within subordinates to bring satisfaction and motivation within them.
14. Esprit de Corps: teamwork, a feeling of cooperation and harmony, two-way verbal communication to be instilled so as to reduce conflict within team members.

Activity 2

Explain the 14 principles of management being practiced in the organisations.

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Structural Theory

Weber, a German sociologist, identified key characteristics of a type of organizational structure called bureaucratic organization. He established that this type of organization has an administration of expertise and discipline. The key features are:

- Job tasks are assigned as official duties for all job levels
- Clear division of labour and work specialization for every job
- There exists a hierarchy based on positions
- Uniformity or consensus of decisions and activities is attained through formal rules and regulations.
- Employment is based on technical qualifications and aligned with long-term career goals of a professional

Stewart summarized four main features of bureaucracy as:

- *Specialization* of jobs than the person doing it to ensure continuity in case a worker leaves
- *Hierarchy of authority* establishes a clear distinction between management and workers and further levels of authority among management
- *System of rules* aims to achieve a formal and efficient process of work

- Impersonality implies assigning authority based on rules and not randomly

Evaluation of bureaucracy Criticism

- Too much focus on rules, regulations, documentation etc.
- Executives show off bureaucratic status and authority
- Lack of flexibility in adapting to changing situations
- Over secrecy on administrative procedures
- Impersonal relations can cause insensitivity to personal problems of employees and lack empathy towards them.

Organizational solutions to Bureaucracy

With increasing global competition and knowledge advancements organizations in the modern world are moving away from bureaucratic systems and building alternate models. Few recommendations for building high performing organizations in the modern world were given by Ridderstrale.

- More flatter and decentralized organizations with broad span of control and reducing mid-level management layers
- Flexible organization that allows movement of people across functions
- Developing learning organizations where all employees are equally familiar with other people and their skills for better collaboration. This can be achieved by building a detailed inventory of core competencies.
- Sharing of knowledge and principles by managers to workers for better cooperation

A good example of bureaucratic organizations is public sector organizations. They maintain uniformity of treatment, compliance to rules and processes, and accountability to the public.

Activity 3

Explain the relevance of Bureaucracy in today's environment of the organisations.

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Mooney and Reiley laid out principles applicable to all organizations.

- the principle of coordination – the principle emphasizes on unity of action that requires all employees to work together with discipline and under authority.

- the scalar principle – focuses on organizational hierarchy, allocation of responsibilities based on job level, and the delegation process
- the functional principle – need for every task to be specialized to differentiate between roles.

Evaluation of the classical approach

- **Positives**

- First theory that viewed management in a systematic manner
- Focus on common principles applicable to all organization
- Focus on evaluating organizational effectiveness

- **Criticisms:**

- Lack of focus on personality factors
- Perception of organization structure where workers have restricted control of the work environment.
- No flexibility in adopting flexible managerial styles and too much dependence on few fixed principles
- Concerns over application of the classical approach in practical world
- No focus on situational factors in the organization
- No focus on social and psychological attributes of workers

Structuralism: This approach suggests focus on both formal and informal aspects of an organization. The approach is a link between the early theories and the human relations approaches.

3.3 SOCIAL MAN THEORY

Taylor, Fayol and Weber are criticized for not treating employees as the basic core of any organization and that human beings are social animals. Mary Parker Follett and Chester Barnard were the two theorists who saw the importance of the social aspects of organizations. Their ideas were to taken into cognizance and not recognized until the 1930s.

Follett felt that organizations should be based on a group ethics rather than individualism. Individual potential is not realized until it is associated with the group. She argued that manager's job is to harmonize and coordinate group efforts. She also said that managers and workers should view themselves as partners – as part of a common group. Therefore, managers have to depend more on their expertise and knowledge rather than the formal authority of their position to lead subordinates.

Her ideas hold good today as the importance is given to motivation, leadership, power and authority. If you look at Japanese, Europe and American Management styles are indebted to Follett's theory. They place great importance to group togetherness and team effort.

She called management “the art of getting things done through others” and wrote about the issues of power, authority, leadership and coordination.

Conflict - She defines conflict in terms of difference and not into the zones of good and bad. Conflict can be dealt with domination, compromise and integration. Domination is considered to be effective but doesn't remain effective for long. Compromise involves sacrifice so integration is the preferred way to deal with conflicting situations.

Power – She defines power as “the ability to influence and bring about change”. Power should not be understood as a forceful way of getting things done through subordinates rather she believes in co existence of power. She opines power should co-exist and developed by superiors as well as subordinates. Her advice is to exert power through back and forth integration between two parties. She didn't believe in delegating power as the same cannot be exercised in a genuine way delegated by the person. Follett asserted that managers' direction and power should flow naturally from their proficiency and skill. Hence approaches of power-over, power with, balance of power, equal power, integration, collective bargaining were discussed and initiated by her.

Giving orders – Orders should not be given rather standard practices should be informed by the managers to the subordinates. Work process, work progress and demand of work should initiate the order and should not be hierarchical always flowing from manager to subordinates. Everyone in the organization should have complete understanding about the purpose of its existence and that is how the orders can be accepted. Sometimes, managers must train and refresh the skill sets of the subordinates so as to indirectly give orders about the new way of performance. Managers in the organization must be prepared and trained to give orders to the subordinates so as to the attitude of the giver must meet the end results and the order should be viewed from organizational perspective.

Authority – Authority is not endorsed as per hierarchy rather it comes with regards to the functioning of the employee. The authority comes with the responsibilities vested on the individual with their knowledge, skills and experiences. Decisions should be taken together by managers and subordinates rather than accepting authoritarian instructions from them i.e. the last step only. The complete process for arriving at a decision which includes the judgement and suggestions shared by the subordinates is also part of authority. Open and informal channels of communication should be allowed in the organization rather than formal lines of authority. Ruling and obeying cannot be considered as authority rather intermingling and fitting work as per the requirement in the organization is real authority.

Leadership – Leaders to focus on group tasks rather than individual tasks as employees perform better in group set up. Leaders should be fully knowledgeable, have proper knowledge of the situation and environment, direct group towards common goal, find new ways and means and to evaluate the means used. She believed that a natural order between management and employees could be achieved through leadership. Leadership is certainly function based and not position based. This leadership was not, however, to be accomplished through

the traditional use of formal authority by superiors over subordinates. She also encouraged managers to coordinate work activities through personal contact rather than through impersonal and leading structured work systems and written rules. Leadership qualities according to her is being sincere, being steadfast, encouraging, willing to serve, control over temper and many more.

Management as a Profession – According to Follett, business management should endeavor to reach the stature of profession as business can learn from profession with regards to maintaining standards. Business houses to take the responsibility to educate people as well as bring more conveniences to them. Science or scientific approach should be applied on business so that everything can be handled and dealt systematically. Business managers must be trained professionally so as to deal with situations professionally and not personally.

Impact and Influence

Her emphasis was mainly on the behavioural approach to management theory. Being an empathetic community worker she advocated issues related to working place of employees. She believed in group behaviour and mutuality of interests between employers and employees. Writings of her are filled with submissive philosophy and values and are not dominant in style. She described methods of achieving integration and to explain alternatives to formal, authoritarian organizational structures. The makers of organization developments carry heavily from the ideas of Follett on integrative solutions to conflicts, the law of situation and viewing behaviour being conditioned both internally and externally.

Chester Barnard

Though Barnard was influenced by Weber, he did not agree with Weber who had mechanistic and impersonal view of organizations. He looked at organizations as social systems that require human cooperation. The main role of a manager is to communicate and influence the employees to meet the goals of an organization. The success of any organization depends on the cooperation, by maintaining, good relations with people working, external forces or which organization is dependent like investors, suppliers, customers and other influences,. By doing this the organization can sustain themselves.

Theory and Philosophy

Elements of organization / Cooperation – Organizational goals to be balanced with the ambitions and aspirations of the employees serving for it so that the organization functions efficiently. He specified principles in which employees can serve in a reciprocal relationship over time. He accentuated on the cooperative work integration of individuals, which is reflected in the form of team or working groups in the organizations currently. For example, few planners believe in creating work teams that serves as a robust building base for the organization. Teams are considered to be self-sufficient in terms of direction and supervision. Management provides objective by specifying each team their roles and goals of the organization. The teams then are made accountable together for their work performances.

Formal and Informal Organization –Barnard discussed the concept of formal organization and informal organization. The formal organization is a conscious

creation between two or more people to achieve organizational goals. The informal organization gets born on its own with the personal interaction and bonding between the employees. Organizations must use these informal setting effectively to achieve the determined purpose. The determined purpose is achieved through proper channels of communication that are known and established. Managers and Supervisors responsible for communication must be competent enough to transfer clear message to subordinates.

Decision Making – Barnard’s decision making was about the power of choice that vanishes if the numbers of alternatives are many. Hence, the process of decision means to narrow choices to the extent where executives or subordinates can deal with them. The art of decision making is a rational process characterized by organizational behaviour more than individual behaviour. The decision making process for the decision maker depends on urgency of the organizational need, no premature decisions, the decisions that cannot be implemented and they should not make decisions for others. The analysis of organizational decision depends mostly on strategic factors and requires to be analyzed under the magnifying details of technical methods. The methods like chemical analysis, statistical processes, balance sheets etc. He also recognized the essences of intuition in decision making that are rationalized to the outcomes.

The Executive Functions – According to Barnard, executives have the responsibility to instill a sense of moral purpose in their employees. The most important function involves communication to the team members. Executives need to instill the feeling of co-operation among the team members of the organization and they need to think for their people than for their self-interest.

Responsibility and Morality – Responsibility is the key to moral behaviour for an individual during strong contrary desires. During the time of differences within the organization these moral codes are effectively displayed through the individual behaviours. Organizations have their own ways of unique expression in form of culture patterns, assumptions, convictions, reflections and belief systems. These moral institutions maneuver the organizational vision and strategies.

Impact and Influence

He provided an important insight into the concept of organization and its social dimensions. Barnard discussed the concept of formal and informal organizations wherein, informal setting is present within the formal setting to create an environment of co-operation, integrity, practice teamwork and unconstrained communication. Barnard’s work sensitized managers in identifying the “informal organization” that promoted the effectiveness of recognizing and using informal workplace groups. Observation of the informal organization in the Hawthorne studies, work groups had their own leaders, influence systems, norms for appropriate behaviour, social pressures and standards, for acceptable and unacceptable levels of performance. Classical management thinking seeded managers to focus on the design and management of the formal organization. Barnard emphasized on the service of executive managers, he also mentioned about the duty of all the individual members as “the basic strategic factor in organization.” He was the one who had laid the developing foundation to a great deal for the study of current behavioural dimensions.

Activity 4

Based on the advocacy of the Follett and Barnard, explain how it influenced the organisations.

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3.4 BEHAVIOURAL MOVEMENT

In this era the human side was given importance in the organizations. This era has started the human relations movement and this has become significant influence in the organizational behavior research.

Before this era started two important fields came into force. One is the birth of **Personnel Office** and another is the field of **Industrial Psychology** with Hugo Munsterberg in 1913.

Personnel Office

With the growth of unionism few firms like H.J. Heinz, Colorado Fuel & Iron and International Harvester created the position of “**welfare secretary**”. These people acted as a liaison between the organization and its employees for suggestions in the improvement working conditions, housing, medical care, education facilities and recreation. These are like the people who are recruited in HR Departments in the present day context of organizations. Goodrich co. established **employment department** in 1900 and the responsibility given was only hiring. In 1902 the National Cash Register Company established the first comprehensive labour department who were given to manage functions like wage administration, grievances, employment and working conditions, health conditions, record keeping and worker improvement.

Industrial Psychology

Hugo Munsterberg published his book on **Psychology and Industrial Efficiency** in 1913. In this he prescribed for the scientific study on human behavior to identify general patterns and to explain individual differences. He also saw a linkage between scientific management and industrial psychology. Both saw increased efficiency through scientific work analyses and through better alignment of individual skills and abilities with the demands of various jobs.

He suggested various Psychological tests for selection, how training helps in development and the importance of studying human behavior for motivating workers. These suggestions are well incorporated in today’s organizations.

The Magna Carta of Labour

Following the stock market crash in 1929 at United States which led to the fall in economy thereby leading to greater depression. At this time, President Franklin D. Roosevelt supported the Wagner Act which was passed in 1935. This Act authorized and legitimized the representatives of the unions to bargain

collectively with their employers on behalf of their members. This Act proved to be the Magna Carta of labour. With this Act the working conditions in the organization improved and their by the relationship between union – management improved. Then came the human relations movement which played a huge role from late 1930s to 1940s.

3.5 HUMAN RELATIONS MOVEMENT

The basic belief in this movement is that higher the satisfaction of employees higher will be the productivity. The following people played important role in this movement. They are Dale Carnegie, Abraham Maslow and Douglas McGregor.

The Human Relation Approach

With the advent of the 1920s, the focus of organizational theorists shifted from formal structures to social factors and employee behaviour at work. Some of the experiments and studies that encouraged the development of the human approach are discussed here.

- The Hawthorne experiment: This experiment was conducted during 1924-1932 at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company near Chicago, USA. Conducted by Elton Mayo and his colleagues, the experiment consisted of four phases:
- the illumination experiments
- the relay assembly test room
- the interviewing programme
- the bank wiring observation room.

The illumination experiments

In this experiment two groups of workers - control group and test group - were exposed to different intensities of lights, the former with normal illumination, and the latter with low to high illumination. The expectation was that higher the illumination, higher the productivity. But no such productivity increase was observed and it was concluded that there is no relationship between the physical conditions and productivity.

The relay assembly test room

In the relay assembly test room the work was boring and repetitive. It involved assembling telephone relays by putting together a number of small parts. Six women workers were transferred from their normal departments to a separate area. The researchers selected two assemblers who were friends with each other. They then chose three other assemblers and a layout operator. The experiment was divided into 13 periods during which the workers were subjected to a series of planned and controlled changes to their conditions of work, such as hours of work, rest pauses and provision of refreshments. The general environmental conditions of the test room were similar to those of the normal assembly line.

During the experiment the observer adopted a friendly manner, consulting the workers, listening to their complaints and keeping them informed of the

experiment. Following all but one of the changes (when operators complained too many breaks made them lose their work rhythm) there was a continuous increase in the level of production. The researchers formed the conclusion that the extra attention given to the workers, and the apparent interest in them shown by management, were the main reasons for the higher productivity. This has become famous as the 'Hawthorne Effect'.

The interviewing programme

The first two phases established the importance of supervision as a factor determining level of productivity. To further understand this, researchers conducted a large interviewing programme in which 20,000 + open-ended, non-directive interviews were conducted. The workers were free to express their opinions on supervision, work conditions, and other work related aspects. Researchers were able to deep dive into workers' feelings, needs, expectations from management, and attitudes and also relate the importance of listening to workers in an organizational setting.

The bank wiring observation room

In this experiment, 14 men were made to work in the bank wiring room and their behaviour was observed. It was observed that within this big formal group, few informal were developed and in each group a leader emerged naturally which other members of groups looked towards for decisions. The group developed its unique set of norms defining the right behaviour for that group. Despite a financial incentive scheme where the individuals were offered more money for higher output, the group decided an optimum level of output suitable to all the members of the group. Instead of some members performing their best, they decided to stick to group norms. The peer pressure had a higher impact on the workers than the financial incentives.

Evaluation of the human relations approach

- No focus on environmental factors
- Lack of scientific approach
- Sex power differential: The relay assembly room had an all female group, and the bank wiring room with restricted output had all males. Also the women were constantly mediated by supervisors which might have influenced their behaviour to work within the supervisor's expectation. These differences in the gender in two phases might have impacted the results but there was no account of that in the results published.

Importance of the Hawthorne Experiments

- Created fresh ideas on the importance of teams and leadership, within-group communication, job design, motivation, and output constraints.
- Focus on human relations at work
- Seminal insights into human behaviour at work and emergence of management thinking

Activity 5

Briefly describe the importance of Hawthorne effect.

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Dale Carnegie book on **How to win Friends and Influence People** has a great impact in the years 1930s, 1940s and 1950s.

Carnegie's essential theme was that the way to success was through winning the cooperation of others. He advised (1) make others feel important through a sincere appreciation of their efforts (2) strive to make a good first impression (3) win people to their way of thinking by letting others do the talking, being sympathetic, and "never telling a man he is wrong" and (4) change people by praising their goods traits and giving the offender the opportunity to save face.

3.6 NEO-HUMAN RELATIONS

Post the Hawthorne experiments, there was an increased focus on the social organization and individual motivation theories in the 1950s and 1960s and organizational theorists focussed on human psychological orientation. The next set of management theories emphasized on personal adjustment of the individual at work and the impact of leadership styles and group relationships. This direction of work was categorized as theories of "neo-human relations".

Maslow, in 1943, developed a conceptual framework of individual personality development and motivation based on a hierarchy of human needs. The hierarchy ranges through five levels from, at the lowest level, physiological needs, through safety needs, love needs and esteem needs, to the need for self-actualisation at the highest level. Individuals advance up the hierarchy only as each lower-level need is satisfied. This theory directly or indirectly impacted the management approaches to motivation and the work design.

McGregor related manager's attitudes towards human behaviour with the management style adopted by him at work. He defined two theories - Theory X and Theory Y for explaining behaviour at work. Theory X managers tend to take a pessimistic view of their people, and assume that they are naturally unmotivated and dislike work. As a result, they think that team members need to be prompted, rewarded or punished constantly to make sure that they complete their tasks. Theory Y managers have an optimistic, positive opinion of their people, and they use a decentralized, participative management style. This encourages a more collaborative, trust-based relationship between managers and their team members.

The neo-human relations approach led to continuing attention to organization structuring, group dynamics, job satisfaction, communication and participation, leadership styles and motivation. It has also led to greater attention to the importance of interpersonal interactions, the causes of conflict and recognition of 'employee relations' problems.

3.7 BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE THEORISTS

These theorists believed in objective research of human behavior in organizations so that science of organizational behavior could be developed.

Jacob Moreno constructed **Socio metric analysis** which identified, attraction, repulsion, indifference patterns among group members. His analysis is used to create cohesive and high performing teams in organizations.

B.F. Skinner came out with **operant conditioning** and **behavior modification** which has a significant effect on the design of organizational training programmes and reward systems. He said that behavior is a function of its consequences. People will engage in the desirable behavior if they are rewarded and if undesirable behavior is not accepted or punished there is decrease in repeating that behavior.

David McClelland with the help of projective tests McClelland found that one can distinguish high need to achieve from low need to achieve among the individuals: these tests helped organizations to match individuals with their competencies to place them at appropriate jobs and also in enriching the jobs to motivate employees.

Fred Fielder with his research on contingency model on **leadership** made an impact in organizational behavior from mid 1960s to late 1970s.

Herzberg listed two different sets of factors - **motivators** and **hygiene factors** - the former influenced motivation and the latter led to satisfaction at work. The hygiene factors, when absent, lead to job dissatisfaction as they are the basic expectations when a person works. But the presence of these factors did not motivate an individual to perform his or her best. To motivate workers, organizations must provide growth/motivating factors. These are concerned with job content.

Hackman and Oldham's research identified five core dimensions which lead to high employee performance and satisfaction,. The core dimensions identified are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. These dimensions also helped in motivating and in designing the jobs.

Relevance to Management and Organizational Behaviour

Positive advantages of OB theories

- It provides a setting in which to view the field of management and to consider the contribution of individual writers.
- It traces the major lines of argument developed by writers seeking to advise practising managers on how they might improve performance.
- It provides a framework in which the principles enunciated can be set and against which comparisons with management practice can be made.
- It helps in organizational analysis and in the identification of problem areas.

- It enables the manager to take from the different approaches those ideas which best suit the particular requirements of the job. For example, in dealing with a problem of structure, the ideas of the classical writers or of contingency theory might be adopted. When there is a problem relating to human resource management, ideas from the human relations movement might be of most value. If the problem is one of environmental influence, insights from the systems approach might prove most helpful. For problems of a more quantitative nature, ideas from the decision-making approach or from management science might be applicable.

Points of caution

- The various approaches represent a progression of ideas, each building on from the other and adding to it. Together they provide a pattern of complementary studies into the development of management thinking.
- The different approaches are not in competition with each other and no one approach should be viewed as if it were the only approach, replacing or superseding earlier contributions. Many ideas of earlier writers are still of relevance today and of continuing importance in modern management practice.
- Any categorisation of individual writers into specific approaches is inevitably somewhat arbitrary and not all writers can be neatly arranged in this manner. This is only to be expected.
- Even when there is agreement on the nature of the contribution from different writers, the actual division into varying approaches may take a number of forms. In other words, while there might be acceptance of the need for a framework, there is no agreement on its shape. Different authors have adopted different formats in which to set out the developments in management thinking.
- Some of the literature categorises management thinkers into divisions called 'schools'. The use of this term suggests clarity of distinction between each division and a uniformity of beliefs within each division. This is perhaps an exaggeration. The distinction between these so-called schools is not clear-cut and there is not necessarily a consistency of thinking among the various contributors in each division.
- The term 'approaches' to management is more indicative of the obscure lines between the different categorisations and, paradoxically, it is the suggestion of vagueness that, arguably, makes it a more appropriate term to use.

3.8 SUMMARY

The unit described the evolvement of this discipline from Scientific Management, Bureaucracy Approaches to Human Relations approach. The various approaches helped the organizations to take the right inputs form these and making the employees work better and to make organizations effective and productive.

1. Case Study

Dell Computers: the world at your fingertips

Breaking the Mould The growth of the home personal computer (PC) market is one of the most remarkable success stories of the last quarter century. If you own a home PC or an electronic notebook and you live in the United States, then there is a one in three possibility that it is a Dell.

Whilst Dell has a smaller proportion of the pc market outside the USA, there remains a strong possibility that your new PC was assembled in Limerick, Penang or Xiamen. Any of these is a very long way from the campus dormitory at the University of Texas at Austin where Michael Dell began to build and sell computers directly to customers in 1984. Then, the majority of domestic customers bought ready-made products from retailers. The distribution channel for the industry usually contained five components; Supplier (of components, chips, software etc.), Manufacturer, Distributor, Retailer and Customer. Michael Dell's idea was to sell direct, and at the same time allow customers to have a PC partly tailored to their personal requirements by choosing options from a list of components and specifications which he would then assemble to order.

The opportunity to develop this new approach into a successful business was made possible by better and faster software which enabled the phone-based ordering system to run effectively. Whilst Dell supplied both business and individual customers, it was in the home PC market that the approach had particular success. Each computer was assembled to order, with components purchased from suppliers as they were required, so Dell was able to identify and respond to customer preferences and industry trends very quickly. While this approach to the manufacture of consumer goods is by no means unique (the 'lean manufacturing' approach is widely used in the car industry for example), Dell was able to make it work more successfully than its competitors.

The basic business model transferred readily to the internet, where the process of 'mass customization' can be managed even more effectively on-line. Dell's growth at the turn of the century took it worldwide, and it was placed first in a ranking of the 'Most Admired Companies' by Fortune magazine in February 2005. Michael Dell transformed a business run from his bedroom at university to one of the leading companies in the IT market.

The brand image which helped put Dell at the top of Fortune's list in 2005 depended very heavily on its ability to pull together both its own efforts and those of other organizations i.e. component manufacturers, transport and logistics organizations, delivery companies etc. to put together a package which offered both reliability and value for money. But the IT business is both highly competitive and a dizzyingly fast-moving environment; and the area where the Dell operation proved most vulnerable was that of customer service and technical support. In the more traditional world of retail outlets, customers were able to discuss purchases, and return faulty equipment or seek support at a store. Such a network of customer support was absent from the Dell model.

Initially, Dell outsourced customer support, but as expectations about after sales service rose, its call centres lagged behind these expectations resulting in some very public criticism not least of which was in the form of a long

running critical blog by dissatisfied customer and journalist Jeff Jarvis. Dell also found itself competing directly with the very companies it had side-stepped in the 1990s; Hewlett-Packard, Lenovo and even Sony. These organizations were not only able to provide high quality, reliable products, but also had much stronger customer service support. This revealed a strategic weakness in Dell's operation and forced it to raise its game not only in terms of the computing power it delivers, but also in terms of its after sales service.

So, Dell brought its technical support centres back in house, and launched its own blog as a means of capturing and responding to customer complaints. Dell is keen to balance business performance with responsible operations; the overall general philosophy is described by the company as 'The Soul of Dell 96 and the Code of Conduct reflects its ambitions to: . . . conduct business the Dell Way – the right way, which is 'Winning with Integrity'. Simply put, we want all members of our team, along with our shareholders, customers, suppliers and other stakeholders, to understand that they can believe what we say and trust what we do.

Feedback from the workforce as well as customers is clearly critical to the success of Dell, and the workforce is encouraged to get involved in the process through its 'Tell Dell' system. There is change happening all across Dell, creating a revolution in how we interact and drive for business results. Processes are changing, attitudes are shifting, objectives are being aligned, careers are being enhanced and people are listening. Closely. At the core of it is Tell Dell. The Tell Dell survey program has been continually refined over the past several years from being a good informational instrument to its current use as a critical analytic and diagnostic tool for making Dell a better place to work and a stronger company. Part of the Winning Culture philosophy is to engage directly with our employees, the way we do with our customers. As managers at Dell, it is critical that we support our Winning Culture by working to deliver an unbeatable employee experience each and every day. Ro Parra and Joe Marengi, Senior Vice Presidents of America. While the product might be great value, it is the staff who will ultimately make or break Dell's fortunes.

Questions

1. Analyse the organizational choices that Dell has made using two of the main analytical models in the chapter. Which approach do you think is more appropriate and why?
2. What are the main organizational challenges which Dell faces in order to 'conduct business the Dell Way?' What are the implications for line managers and supervisors of creating a corporate culture based on the Dell Way?

2. Case study

Dinesh, a young executive in Softech Ltd., has become irritable, unpopular with colleagues and subordinates, and a problem for the boss. His performance has started to slacken, and mistakes plague his every action and recommendation. What is surprising is just three months back Dinesh was quite opposite of all these. He also has a brilliant track record. With a gold medal from a prestigious B-school, Dinesh entered his vocational area of finance and proved

an instant success. He has revamped the cost and budgetary control systems, set up a management accounting procedure, and created a reliable and efficient management information system. Dinesh received awards and is slated to climb up the organizational hierarchy further. Yet, such a man has gone to pieces all of a sudden. Several things transpired against Dinesh. His only son has turned out to be a spastic child, he has been overlooked for a promotion, with a less flamboyant outsider being preferred for the No. 1 slot by the management, which has suddenly exhibited its preference to a traditional accountant, and he has fallen foul of a powerful line executive. To compound the problem further, what had been a mild flirtation with an office colleague has assumed the proportion of a major sex scandal. With his emotional relationships in a mess and worried about his son's health and his own future in Softech, Dinesh's morale has gone bust. His self-confidence has been rudely shaken.

- a) How would the knowledge of OB help describe these sudden happenings in the life of Dinesh?
- b) What should Dinesh do now?

3.9 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Assess critically the relevance of scientific management to present-day organizations. Illustrate your answer with reference to your own organization.
2. To what extent is there anything positive to be said for bureaucratic structures? Select a large-scale organization of your choice and suggest ways in which it displays characteristics of a bureaucracy.
3. What are the main conclusions that can be drawn from the Hawthorne experiments? Discuss critically the relevance of these experiments for management and organizational behaviour today.
4. Summarise the main features of the neo-human relations approach to organization and management. How does it differ from other approaches?
5. Contrast approaches to improving organizational performance based on attention to technical and structural requirements with those based on concern for psychological and social factors.
6. Identify, and outline briefly, major trends in management theory since the beginning of this century. Debate critically the extent to which the ideas of management gurus have any practical relevance or benefits for managers.

3.10 FURTHER READINGS/ REFERENCES

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Block

2

INTRAPERSONAL PROCESSES

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BLOCK INTRODUCTION

This block covers various intra personal processes which take place in an organisation. It has four units. The first unit covers the definitions, theories and concept of Personality. It also explains how values and attitudes of an individual play an important role in organisations. The second unit deals with the principles, and applications of learning in organisations. Then the concept of behaviour modification and its impact in organisations is explained. The third unit deals with perception and attribution. The last unit is on the motivation which explains its importance and the organisation's role in motivating its employees.



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UNIT 4 PERSONALITY, VALUES AND ATTITUDES

Objectives

After going through this unit you should be able to understand:

- importance of understanding human behaviour;
- types, determinants and approaches to personality;
- theories of personality;
- importance of personality and its impact on OB; and
- concepts of attitude, value and socialisation.

Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Models to Understand Human Behaviour
- 4.3 Implications for the Organisation
- 4.4 Personality
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- 4.6 Type and Trait Approaches to Personality
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4.1 INTRODUCTION

Personality is a concept that we use continuously in our day-to-day routine while dealing with people. Personality can be reflected in a person's temperament and is a key factor influencing individual behaviour in organisations. The study of personality is very essential and helpful in ensuring effective job performance. This means that the personality of an individual represents personal characteristics

and traits which can lead to consistent patterns of behaviour. So while trying to understand the personality, it is to be understood that the behaviour is the outcome of a complex interaction between the person and the situation. Hence, it will be necessary to have knowledge of those personality traits which predetermine the parameters for employee's (or people's) behaviour and thus provide a paradigm for predicting behaviour. The theories of personality are many, and most important of them are trait, type, psychoanalytic, socio-psychological, and self-theory. Each theory seeks to add a new perspective to the nature of personality.

It is very essential to understand human behaviour in today's world as the existence of the organisation depends on the employees/individuals.

Without understanding human behaviour it is very difficult to work in an organisation. In order to understand human behaviour let us see how the perception of human being has changed from time to time.

All organisations are composed of individuals, with different personality, attitudes, values, perception, motives, aspirations and abilities. The main reason to understand behaviour is that individuals are different. No two individuals are similar. In the early studies, theories of organisation and management treated people as though they were the same; scientific management was based on the similarities among workers, not the differences. In contrast, modern theories of human behaviour are based upon the differences among people and how those differences can affect the organisation. Individual differences are many for example some employees are motivated to work and some are not. This can be due to several reasons, and can be known by further reading the unit.

Before we proceed to understand human behaviour, it is better to know what the term '**behaviour**' means. Behaviour can be defined as a response/s which is observed directly/indirectly. Direct observation is possible by studying the responses of people

to a work environment. Indirect observations are decision making processes and attitudes, in terms of results or how people describe them verbally.

Human behaviour is very much unpredictable. In behaviour we cannot assume one set pattern of behaviour. Lavitt classified behaviour as: (i) Caused behaviour, (ii) Motivated behaviour, (iii) Goal oriented behaviour. From these observations it can be understood that behaviour is a dependent factor. By understanding behaviour one can predict, direct, change and control behaviour of individuals or group. There are generally four basic assumptions regarding nature of people: individual differences, a whole person, caused behaviour (motivation) and value of the person (human dignity).

In an organisational set up it is essential for managers to understand behaviour. as they are constantly with people, interacting with them in terms of communication (either written or oral) in terms of work (either by specifying the work and getting things done).

Understanding past behaviour is important for developing effective human skills, and it also provides a framework for predicting behaviour. It also gives an idea to managers as to how behaviour is similar in certain circumstances and changing in changing environmental conditions.

Another skill which an effective manager or leader needs is the ability to direct, change and control behaviour.

Managers have to understand that there are-going to be individual differences among the employees, as no individual is similar to other. Each individual is unique by themselves. Then one has to understand that each individual has to be taken care of as a whole person by taking care of. his needs as well as training and making him up to date in terms of work. Ultimately human beings have to be treated with respect only then you can expect effective performance. With the following descriptions you will be able to understand the concept better.

Dan's analyses the nature of people in terms of four assumptions.

1. Individual Differences

Behaviour is the result of interaction between individual characteristics and the characteristics of the environment in which the behaviour occurs.

Each person has a unique combination of characteristics. Some of these characteristics are present from birth; others develop over time. These can be called as inherited and learned characteristics. Although there are some inherited

Table 1: Learned Characteristics and its Effect on Behaviour

<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Relationship found</i>
Tolerance for conflict	Perceived role conflict	Less role conflict with greater tolerance for conflict
Relative importance of extrinsic versus intrinsic rewards	Expressed job satisfaction	"Extrinsic Managers" expressed less job satisfaction
Value or work ethic	Attendance	Stronger work ethic associated with greater attendance
Diversity of interests	Salary based measure of performance	High general interest diversity associated with better performance
Locus of control	Experienced job stress	More stress with emphasis on external locus of control

characteristics, but these are very few, and not so significant. Learned characteristics are very important. Individual differences can be because of environment, personal and psychological factors. It is also due to physical and social factors. Learned characteristics are acquired as people grow, develop and interact with their environments. This is depicted by Table 1.

'Environmental factors' are characteristics of the broader environment such as economic conditions, social and. cultural norms, and political factors that can affect the individuals behaviour. Personal factors include physical and personal attributes e.g., age, sex, race, education and abilities, psychological factors are less observable. They are mental characteristics and attributes such as values, attitudes, personality and aptitudes that affect behaviour through complex psychological processes. These are studied, in the subsequent units.

All aspects of the physical world that can be seen, heard, felt, smelled or touched are part of the physical environment of behaviour. The social environment of an

individual includes relationships with family, friends, co-workers, supervisors and subordinates and membership in groups such as unions. The behaviour of others (as distinct from the individual's relationship with them) is also part of an individual's social environment. Any 'norms, rules, laws or reward systems that originate with other individuals or groups help to form an individual's social environment.

2. A Whole Person

When an employee works in an organisation, the organisation takes care of that person by making him effective, as a worker and as a person.

3. Caused Behaviour (Motivation)

People's behaviour is need based. By fulfilling these needs one is motivated positively and there occurs effective performance. So the management in the organisation has to take care of these needs in order to have an effective performance. The management can show them how certain actions will increase their need fulfilment and if not; how it decreases their need fulfilment.

4. Value of the Person (Human Dignity)

People have to be treated with respect and as individuals and they can not be treated like machines as how scientific management use to treat them. By recognising them and treating them with uniqueness the value of the person gets increased. By this we can understand how the concept of treating human beings from machines to human capitals have evolved.

If one accepts the fact that human skill development is necessary then managers and leaders must have necessary understanding in order to influence the behaviour of other people. It was felt that the managers acquire three levels of expertise. Firstly they have to understand the past and current behaviour, so that they are able to predict behaviour and then they learn to direct change, and control behaviour.

4.2 MODELS TO UNDERSTAND HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Early classical approaches made the assumptions that people are naturally lazy and self-serving, neutral, or positive and self-motivated. In simpler terms they need to be pushed and controlled and kept under surveillance, never to be trusted to put in a good day's work by themselves. Economic rewards were the only one considered, and close autocratic supervision was suggested.

Systems and contingency theorists viewed people as adaptable and felt that much of behaviour was learned and not attributable to predispositions to be negative or positive. Likert, Mc Gregor and Bennis who developed and extended the findings of human-relations theorists had a positive view of human nature. Employees were seen as striving for personal and social well-being. If left alone, they would work hard for the intrinsic satisfaction of a job well done. The emphasis was on democratic decision making and leadership. Jobs were to be challenging and allowed the individual employee to be creative.

Psychoanalytic Model: Freudian approach depends on conflict model of humans. By using clinical techniques of free association and psychotherapy Freud felt that behaviour is not always consciously explained. "Unconscious" is the major factor which guides the individual's behaviour. Freud felt that the individual's behaviour depends on three factors: (i) id, (ii) Ego and (iii) Super ego.

Id: By Id it means pleasure. To certain degree of having Id in an individual is constructive but may also lead to destructive tendencies like being aggressive, dominating, fighting and generally destroy. This kind of instinctive is more dominating in childhood. But once individuals develop and mature they learn to control the id. But it is always unconscious. Throughout life the 'id' becomes important source of thinking and behaving.

Ego: Ego represents 'conscious' stage in one's behaviour. Though Id comes in conflict with ego, the ego depends on the super ego.

Superego: It represents "conscience". An individual is not aware of the superego's functioning. The conscience is dependent on two factors that is cultural values and moral of a society. Superego's development depends mostly on parent's influence. Once the child grows up the child will unconsciously identifies with parents value and morals.

There is always tussle between id, ego and superego. The degree of each of them varies from person to person. So the variations in individual's behaviour can be better understood with the help of this model.

But the modern theories have severely criticised this theory as it is not based on any empirical facts and as such it can not be accepted in totality. But the concept of "unconscious" is a significant contribution in understanding specific behaviour of humans.

Existential Model: This model is not scientifically based. It's base is literature and philosophy.

The existentialists believe that the depersonalising effects of this environment forces individuals to make their own destiny. So the individuals shape their own identity and make their "existence" meaningful and worthwhile to themselves.

This is more true and happening in today's urbanisation. Because people have become so materialistic and busy, they do not have time for traditional values and norms and it becomes impractical sometimes to follow them. Existential model is, especially true when you are employed in today's world.

Though this model is not scientific it can be definitely be used in understanding human behaviour.

Internal vs. External Determinants of Behaviour

Environment plays a major role in shaping behaviour and genetic endowment and personality development is influenced by our historical heritage.

Personality vs the Environment

Both personality and situational variables must be taken into account in order to explain an individual's behaviour but a focus on the environment is as important or perhaps slightly more important than focusing on personality traits.

Cognition vs the Environment

To understand one's behaviour all we have to know is the individual's past responses to similar (stimulus) situations and the rewards or punishments that followed that response.

There are two models which come out of these approaches:

1. **Behaviouristic Model:** In this model the behaviour is dependent on two factors i.e., stimulus and response. Learning occurs with this kind of model. Pavlov and Watson with their research felt that behaviour can be best understood by stimulus and response.

Behaviourist model is represented as: S - R (Stimulus-Response)

2. **Cognitive Model:** S-OR-R. This model emphasises the positive and free-will factors of human beings and uses concepts such as expectancy, demand and incentive.

Tolman with his experiments found that the basis of learning is of 'expectancy' which is understood as one particular event leading to a particular consequence i.e., goal. Human behaviour is based on these goals.

The cognitive model is represented as:

S - O - R (Stimulus-Organism-Response model)

Both approaches see learning and the environment as having a major impact on behaviour.

From these different approaches it can be said that:

- i) Behaviour is caused by instincts, genetic background and personality traits that are formed at an early age. Change is very difficult for the individual and that one's capacity is severely limited.
- ii) Behaviour is mostly learned through our interactions with the environment. Present events rather than past events are important. Even though there are some limitations on one's capacities, one is capable of great amounts of change.

4.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION

Behaviour of individuals is caused, and follows a pattern, because of this, behaviour is unpredictable. Study of behaviour is however, rewarding and necessary for management. It is doubtful whether the manager can perform the tasks satisfactorily without developing a fair degree of understanding of the people around him.

Any attempt to learn why people behave as they do in organisations requires

some understanding of individual differences. Managers spend considerable time making judgements about the fit between individuals, job tasks and from these approaches it can be concluded that there is an overwhelming consensus that the, environment has a much greater effect than it is believed. The implications for organisations are important. It means that large areas of human behaviour are modifiable. Organisational design, training and development can have a profound impact on the behaviour of the members of an organisation.

4.4 PERSONALITY

Gordon Allport defined Personality as the dynamic organisation within the individual of those Psycho-Physical Systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.

Personality can be described more specifically as "how a person affects others, how one understands and views oneself and the pattern of inner and outer measurable traits."

From this definition, it can be understood one's physical appearance and behaviour affects others. Understanding oneself means one is unique with a set of attitudes and values and a self-concept. Finally, the pattern of measurable traits refers to a set of characteristics that the person exhibits.

Some of the other definitions are "Personality is a vehicle to integrate perception, learning, values and attitudes and thus to understand the total person." "Personality is an individual's total sense of self, it is an organising force for the persons particular pattern of exhibited traits and behaviours." "Personality is the culmination of experiences and genetic influences." Personality is influenced by the personal life and where he is working.

4.5 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

Personality is the result of both heredity and environment and also the situation.

Heredity

Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception. Physical appearance, temperament, energy level and biological rhythms are the characteristics which are generally influenced by one's Parents' i.e., One's Biological, Physiological and Inherent Psychological Make up. The Heredity approach feels that personality of an individual is the Molecular Structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes.

Environment

Culture plays an important role in the formation of personality, i.e., early conditioning, the norms among the family, friends and social groups. With the socialisation process in the group, personalities are altered over time.

Situation

Though an individual personality is constant, it does change depending on the situation. Different demands in different situations call forth different aspect of one's personality.

The relationship of these three factors affects the formation and development of Personality. Psychological inheritance is entirely an internal contribution. Group and culture are the early environmental factors that form later behaviour. Family and social setting during the early stages of education are the important factors which influences the initial formation of personality. Whatever the child learns here lasts for life time. Later in life, it is the Peer groups or Primary affiliations at work, social activities which shape the Personality.

4.6 TYPE AND TRAIT APPROACHES TO PERSONALITY

The traditional viewed individuals as Shy, Lazy, Melancholy, Ambitious, Aggressive. These were called a Traits. Groups of these traits were then aggregated to Personality types.

Trait Approach

Cattel (1973) identified 16 source traits/Primary Traits. These traits were found to be generally steady and constant sources of behaviour. But there was found to be no scientific relevance.

Figure 1: Sixteen Source Traits

-
- 1) Reserved - Outgoing
 - 2) Less intelligent - More intelligent
 - 3) Affected by feelings - Emotionally stable
 - 4) Submissive - Dominant
 - 5) Serious - Happy go Lucky
 - 6) Expedient - Conscientious
 - 7) Timid - Venturesome
 - 8) Tough minded - Sensitive
 - 9) Trusting - Suspicious
 - 10) Practical - Imaginative
 - 11) Forthright - Shrewd
 - 12) Self-Assured - Apprehensive
 - 13) Conservative - Experimenting
 - 14) Group-dependent - Self-sufficient
 - 15) Uncontrolled - Controlled
 - 16) Relaxed - Tense
-

In the type approach, several behaviours are seen as cluster characterising individuals with high degree of stability.

Locus of control: People are assumed to be of two types: 'Internals' and 'Externals'. Internals are people who believe that much of what happens to them is controlled by their destiny. Externals believe that much of what happens to them is controlled by outside forces.

Machiavellianism: High Machs tend to take control, especially in loosely structured situations; Low Machs respond well to structured situations. High Machs tend to be more logical, rational and Pragmatic. They are more skilled in influencing and coalition building.

Type 'A' or Type 'B'

People who are Hard-driving, impatient, aggressive, and super competitive are termed as Type 'A' Personality. Those who are easy-going, sociable, laid-back and non-competitive are termed as

Type 'B' Personality.

Type A people tend to be very productive and work very hard. They are workaholics. The negative side of them is that they are impatient, not good team players, more irritable, have poor judgement.

Type B people do better on complex tasks involving judgement, accuracy rather than speed and team work.

4.7 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Carl Jung identified three basic assumptions in theory, 1) Personalities are developmental in that they are influenced by past and hopes for the future. 2) All people have the potential for growth and change. 3) Personality is the totality of a person's interacting sub-systems.

Emotional Orientations

Jung feels that the two basic Orientations of People are extroversion and introversion. Introverts are primarily oriented to the subjective world. They look inward at themselves, avoid 'social contacts and initiating interaction with others, withdrawn, quiet and enjoy solitude. Extroverts are friendly, enjoy interaction with people, are generally aggressive and express their feelings and ideas openly.

Managers should gain an understanding of themselves and learn how understanding others can make them better managers.

Validity results showed that introvert/extrovert is really applicable to only the rare extremes. Most individuals tend to be ambiverts, that is, they are in between introversion and extroversion.

Figure 2: Extroverts versus Introverts: Characteristics of Each

Extroverts	Introverts
Likes variety and action.	Like quiet for concentration
Tend to work faster, dislike complicated procedure.	Tend to be careful with details, dislike sweeping statements.

Intrapersonal Processes

Are often good at greeting people.	Have trouble in remembering names and faces.
Are often impatient with slow jobs.	Tend not to mind working on one project for a long time uninterruptedly.
Are interested in results of their job, getting it done and in how other people do it.	Are interested in the idea behind their job.
Often do not mind interruption of answering the telephone.	Dislike telephone intrusions and interruptions.
Often act quickly, sometimes without thinking.	Like to think a lot before they act, sometimes without acting.
Like to have people around.	Work contentedly alone.
Usually communicate freely.	Have some problems in communicating.

Problem-solving Styles

Jung identified two basic steps in problem solving: collecting information and making decision. Collecting data occurs in a continuum from sensing to intuition. In terms of decision-making, it ranges from 'thinking' to 'feeling' types.

Sensing-type: The person approaches the problem in a step by step organised way. The person works steadily and patiently with details.

Intuitive type: One who does not show a lot of emotion, who can put things in a logical order and who can be firm and fair.

The feeling type is aware of other people, dislikes telling people unpleasant things and prefers harmony among people.

The interaction of these two aspects of problem solving results in four problem-solving types.

- 1) The sensing-feeling person likes to collect data in an orderly way and make decisions that take into account the needs of people. This person is very concerned with high-quality decisions that people will accept and implement.
- 2) The intuitive-feeling person is equally concerned with the people side of decisions but the focus is on new ideas which are often broad in scope and lacking in details.
- 3) Sensing-thinkers emphasise details and quality of a decision. They are not as concerned with the people aspect of an organisation as with a technically sound decision.
- 4) Intuitive-thinking likes to tackle new and innovative problems, but make decisions primarily on technical terms. They tend to be good planners, but not so good at implementing.

There is always a combination of these types in a person.

General attitudes: The last personality sub-system Jung identified was general attitude work, namely judging and perceptive. Judging types like to follow a plan, like to make decisions, and want only essentials for their work. On the other hand, perceptive types adapt well to change, want to know all about a job and may get overcommitted.

Figure 3: Sensing Types versus Intuitive types: Characteristics of Each

Sensing Types	Intuitive Types
Dislike new problems unless there are standard ways to solve them.	Like solving new problems.
Like an established way of doing things.	Dislike doing same thing repeatedly.
Enjoy using skills already learned more than learning new ones.	Enjoy learning a new skill more than using it.
Work more steadily, with realistic idea of how long it will take.	Work in bursts of energy powered by enthusiasm, with slack periods in between.
Usually reach a conclusion step by step.	Reach conclusion quickly.
Are patient with routine details.	Are impatient with routine details.
Are impatient when the details get complicated.	Are patient with complicated situations.
Are not often inspired, and rarely trust the inspiration when they are.	Follow their inspirations, good or bad.
Seldom makes errors of fact.	Frequently makes errors of fact.
Tend to be good at precise work.	Dislike taking time for decision.

Figure 4: Thinking Types versus Feeling Types: Characteristics of Each

Thinking Types	Feeling Types
Do not show emotion readily and are often uncomfortable dealing with people's feelings.	Tend to be very aware of other people and their feelings.
May hurt people's feelings without knowing it.	Enjoy pleasing people, even in unimportant things.
Like analysis and putting things in logical order; can get along without harmony.	Like harmony. Efficient but are badly disturbed by office feuds.
Tend to decide impersonally, sometimes paying insufficient attention to people's wishes.	Often let decisions be influenced by their own or other people's personal likes and wishes.
Need to be treated fairly.	Need occasional praise.
Are able to reprimand people or fire them when necessary.	Dislike telling people unpleasant things.
Are more analytically oriented; respond easily to people's thoughts.	Are more people-oriented; respond easily to people's values.
Tend to be firm minded.	Tend to be sympathetic.

Figure 5: Judging Types versus Perceptive Types: Characteristics of Each

Judging Types	Perceptive Types
Work best when they can plan their work and follow the plan.	Adapt well to changes.
Like to get things settled and finished.	Do not mind leaving things open for alterations.
May decide things too quickly.	May have trouble making decisions.
May dislike to interrupt the project they are on for a more urgent one.	May start too many projects and have difficulty finishing them.
May not notice new things that need to be done.	May postpone unpleasant things.

Want only essentials needed to begin their work.	Want to know all about a new job.
Tend to be satisfied once they reach a judgment on a thing, situation, or person.	Tend to be curious and welcome new information on a thing, situation, or person.

Development of Personality: Erikson's eight life stages

Erikson identified eight stages of life that characterise the unending development of a person. He characterised each stage by a particular conflict that needs to be resolved successfully before a person can move to the next stage. However, These eight stages are not totally separate, and the crises are never fully resolved. Movement between stages is developmental. Movement can even involve regression to earlier stages when traumatic events occur.

Stage One, Infancy: During the first year of life a person resolves the basic crisis of trust vs. mistrust. An infant who is cared for in a loving and affectionate way learns to trust other people. Lack of love and affection results in mistrust. This stage makes a serious impact on a child that influences events for remaining life.

Stage Two, early childhood: In the second and third years of life, a child begins to assert independence. If the child is allowed to control these aspects of life that the child is capable of controlling, sense of autonomy will develop. If the child encounters constant disapproval or inconsistent rule setting, a sense of self-doubt and shame is likely to develop.

Stage Three, play age: The four and five year olds seek to discover just how much they can do. If a child is encouraged to experiment and to achieve reasonable goals, he or she will develop a sense of initiative. If a child is blocked and made to feel incapable, he or she will develop a sense of 'guilt and lack of self- confidence'.

Stage Four, school age: From ages 6 to 12, a child learns many new skills and develops social abilities. If a child experiences real progress at a rate compatible with his or abilities, the child will develop a sense of industry. The reverse situation results in a sense of inferiority.

Stage Five, adolescence: The crisis of the teenage years is gain a sense of identity rather than to become confused about who you are. While undergoing rapid biological changes, the teenager is also trying to establish himself or herself as socially separate from parents. The autonomy, initiative, and industry developed in earlier stages are very important in helping the teenager successfully resolve this crisis and prepare for adulthood.

Stage Six, young adulthood: The young adult (20's and 30's) faces the crisis of intimacy versus isolation. The sense of identity developed during the teenage years allows the young adult to begin developing deep and lasting relationships.

Stage Seven, adulthood: During their 40's and 50's adults face the crisis of generativity versus self-absorption. Self-absorbed persons never develop an ability to look beyond themselves. They may become absorbed in career advancements and maintenance; and they may never learn to have concern for future generations, the welfare of organisations to which they belong or the

welfare of society as a whole. Generative people see the world as much bigger than themselves. Productivity in work or child rearing or societal advancement become important to them. Through innovation and creativity, they begin to exert influence that benefits their organisation.

Stage Eight, later life: The adult of integrity has gained a sense of wisdom and prospective that can truly help guide future generations.

Sheldon: He labeled three body builds and certain Personality Characteristics they reflected. The three body types are:

1. Endomorph - Fleshy and inclined towards fatness.
2. Mesomorph - Athletic and inclined to be muscular
3. Ectomorph - Thin and inclined to be fine-boned and fragile. The personality characteristics reflected are:

Endomorph: Friendly, oriented towards people, seek others when troubled, slow to react, loves to eat.

Mesomorph: Seeks physical adventure, needs and enjoys exercise, restless, aggressive, likes risk and chance, competitive.

Ectomorph: Likes privacy, socially inhibited, quick to react and hypersensitive to pain.

Passages Theory

Sheehy (1976) with her extensive research concluded that adults progress through five crises:

- 1) **Pulling up Roots:** This period occurs between the ages of eighteen and twenty two, when individuals exit from home and incur physical, financial, and emotional separation from parents. They cover their fears and uncertainty with acts of defiance and mimicked confidence.
- 2) **The Trying Twenties:** This period is a time of opportunity, but also includes the fear that choices are irrevocable. Two forces push upon us - one is to build a firm, safe structure for the future by making strong commitments and the other is to explore and experiment and keep flexible as to commitments.
- 3) **The Catch - Thirties:** Approaching the age thirty is a time in which life commitments are made, broken or renewed. It may mean setting towards a new phase or calming down of idealistic dreams to realistic goals. Commitments are changed or they are deepened. There is change, turmoil, and often an urge to be out of the routine.
- 4) **The Deadline Decade:** The ten years between the age of thirty-five and forty- five represent a crossroad. This period is characterised by a re-examination of one's purposes and how the resources will be spent from now on.
- 5) **Renewal or Resignation:** The mid forties bring a period of stability. The individual who can find a purpose and direction upon which to continue building his or her life, the mid forties may well be the best years.

These stages are related to working places. It is expected that all employees face crises during their careers - Just as young people pass through identity crises, during their teenage years, adults too go through stages - insecurity, opportunities presented, opportunities forgone and lost, and either the acceptance of new challenges or resignation. These crises create the opportunity for an employee to alter his or her goals, commitments, and loyalties to the organisation. When employees reach their forties, they re-examine their goals and make important adjustments in their lives. Their personalities may undergo significant changes resulting in behavioural patterns quite different from his or her environment.

Maturation Theory: Chris Argyris has postulated a maturation theory of personality development that proposes that all healthy people seek situations that offer autonomy, wise interests, to be treated equally, and the opportunity to exhibit their ability to deal with complexity. Healthy individuals tend to move from immaturity to maturity:

- 1) From being passive to engaging in increasing activity.
- 2) From dependence on others to independence.
- 3) From having few ways to behave to possess many alternatives.
- 4) From having shallow interests to developing deeper interests.
- 5) From short time perspective to having a longer time perspective.
- 6) From being in a subordinate position to viewing oneself as equal or superior.
- 7) From lack of awareness of oneself to awareness of oneself.

According to Argyris, healthy people will show the behaviours of maturity while unhealthy people tend to demonstrate childlike immature behaviours. Further, Argyris argues that most organisations tend to treat their employees like children, making them dependent.

The manager who understands personality development is better able to predict these crises and recognise them as natural transitions that adults encounter. Neither trait nor type approach, or theories of personality presented help in predicting behaviour of an individual. The reason is, they ignore situational contexts.

4.8 IMPACT OF PERSONALITY TRAITS ON ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Personality trait typically refers to the basic components of personality. The names are generally the terms used by people to describe one another. There may be hundreds or thousands of such terms and practically impossible to keep a track of these. Now, research has identified several general factors which can be used to describe an individual's personality. These are depicted in the form of "Big Five" personality factors describing an individual's adjustment, sociability, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and intellectual openness.

Each personality includes a large number and range of specific personality traits dimensions. Thus, each factor is said to contain both a collection of related traits

as well as a continuum. For instance, an individual having a personality at one extreme will be sociable, gregarious, and energetic; and at the other extreme will be shy and withdrawn. It will be interesting to note the individual personality in the study of organisational behaviour because it provides the linkage between personality and behaviour. Even though each personality factor represents a collection of related traits, the link between personality and specific behaviours will become clear when we concentrate on particular traits rather than on all the five factors. We will briefly examine the specific personality traits which are particularly important for understanding the various aspects of organisational behaviour.

There are many different personality traits, but some of the important ones for organisational behaviour are risk-taking, self-monitoring, type A and type B personality, self-esteem, locus of control, machiavellianism, goal orientation, introversion versus extroversion, dogmatism, and authoritarianism.

Risk-Taking

People differ in their willingness to take chances. Their propensity to assume or avoid risk has been shown to have an impact on how long it takes managers to make a decision and how much information they require before making their choice.

While it is generally correct to conclude that managers in organisations are risk averse, there are still individual differences. As a result, it makes sense to recognise those differences and even to consider aligning risk-taking propensity with specific job demands. For instance, a high risk-taking propensity may lead to more effective performance for a stock trader in a brokerage firm. This type of risk demands rapid decision-making. On the other hand, this personality characteristic might prove a major obstacle to accountants performing auditing activities. This type of job might be better filled by someone with a low risk-taking propensity.

Self-Monitoring

Another personality trait that has received increased attention is self-monitoring. It refers to an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external factors. Individuals high in self-monitoring can show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behaviour to external factors. They are highly sensitive to external cues and can behave differently in different situations. Low self-monitors cannot deviate from their behaviour. They tend to display their true dispositions and attitude in every situation; hence there is high behavioural consistency between who they are and what they do. The high self-monitors tend to pay closer attention to the behaviour of others and are more capable of conforming than low self-monitors.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is the outcome of an individual's continuous evaluation of himself or herself which will be assessments reflecting his/her response to others' opinions, situational requirement, and successes and failures. Such assessments are usually stable and accurate enough to be considered as a personality trait. In terms of the Big Five personality factors, self-esteem is most likely to be a part of the adjustment factor.

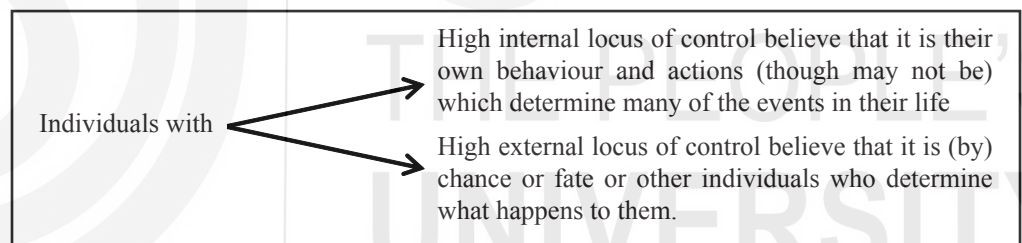
Some of the ways in which self-esteem can affect organisational behaviour are:

- Self-esteem reflects an individual's choice of vocation.
- Individuals with high self-esteem are likely to be attracted towards higher status jobs. They also select unconventional jobs as compared to individuals with low esteem.
- Self-esteem affects individuals as to how they set goals and attach value in attaining them.
- Employees with high self-esteem set high goals for themselves and place more value on actually attaining goals; and this would work the other way around in case of employees with low self-esteem.
- Employees with low self-esteem are more sensitive to adverse job conditions such as stress, conflict, ambiguity, poor supervision, poor working conditions and so on when compared to employees with high self-esteem.

Simply stated, self-esteem is clearly indicative of the willingness of the employee to assert himself or herself towards completion of the task assigned and thus having positive links to achievement.

Locus of Control

Locus of control indicates the belief of the individual on the extent to which he or she can control events affecting them.



Machiavellianism

This term is derived from Niccolo Machiavelli's writings, who wrote on how to gain and use power i.e., on an individual's ability to manipulate people. Thus, such Machs can easily be game for participating in organisational politics.

Those who are high Machs, believe 'ends justify means'. They try manipulating more, winning more, persuade others more and are themselves less persuaded. Yet, there are situational factors which affect high Machs and they are able to flourish in indirect situations. The situations involving minimum rules and regulations and emotional involvement with details are irrelevant to winning, and act as a cause of distraction for low Machs. For instance, where jobs involve good bargaining skills, or where rewards are awarded for good performance and winning, Machiavellians can perform better.

Goal Orientation

Another visible difference in individual behaviour in work environment is related to goal orientation or the preference for one type of goal against another.

While trying to understand some aspects of individual job performance, we will have to consider two types of goal orientation:

- (a) **Learning Goal Orientation** — A predisposition to develop competence by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations.
- (b) **Performance Goal Orientation** — A predisposition to demonstrate and validate competence by trying to obtain favourable judgments from others (such as one's supervisor) and refrain from negative judgments.

But when applying this goal orientation to work setting, a dramatic response pattern in behaviour emerges. An individual with strong goal orientation may refrain from accepting work challenges and their performance suffers when they are unable to overcome obstacles and when faced with failure, become unhappy and are likely to withdraw from such situations.

Individuals with a strong learning goal orientation try to overcome failure and setback by putting in more efforts and looking out for new solutions to the problems. Although an individual's goal orientation may vary from situation to situation, evidence suggest that a significant amount of goal orientation can be indicative of an individual's personality.

Introversion Versus Extroversion

The terms introvert and extrovert describe a person's congeniality. These terms can be extended to refer to a personality dimension also.

Introversion refers to the tendency to direct everything inward; develop a greater affinity for abstract ideas and sensitive to personal feelings. Extroversion refers to the tendency to orient towards other people, events and objects.

An introvert by nature is quiet, introspective and emotionally unimpressive. An extrovert is one who is sociable, lively, impulsive and emotionally very expressive.

People displaying characteristics of both introversion and extroversion are found in all types of educational, gender, and occupational groups. The extremes of both extroversion or introversion may not be good and can even come in the way of the person's effectiveness.

It is understood that the introversion – extroversion personality dimension can affect the task performance in various environments. That is introverts perform the job better when alone in a quiet environment, while extroverts perform better in an environment having many people with a high level of activity.

Dogmatism

High dogmatism refers to the tendency of the individual to be very rigid, perceives the world as a threatening place, prefers to treat legitimate authority as absolute and either accepts or rejects other people on the basis of their agreement or disagreement with accepted authority or doctrine.

Simply stated, a high-dogmatic (HD) person appears to be close-minded and prefers to depend on authoritative people in organisations for guidance and direction, and hence can more easily be influenced by such persons. As against

this, people with low-dogmatic (LD) tendency are more open-minded and cannot be easily influenced by authoritative figures in the organisation like HD persons.

With regards to the degree of dogmatism and its relationship with interpersonal and group behaviour it is noted that HDs typically are in need of more group structure as compared to LDs. So the performance of HDs will also be dependent on how the group performs. But a high degree of dogmatism can at times lead to poor managerial performance because they may be involved only in a limited search for information especially in decision making situations.

Authoritarianism

Authoritarianism though closely related to dogmatism, is narrower in scope. It refers to a person who displays qualities such as adherence to conventional values, obeys recognised authority, has a negative view of society, respects power and toughness, and opposes expression of personal feelings.

In an organisational set up, such persons may prefer superiors who have a highly directive and structured leadership style. Both dogmatism and authoritarianism can be related to the 'intellectual openness factor' of the 'Big Five' factors.

4.9 IMPORTANCE OF PERSONALITY

Understanding of personality is very important because by determining what characteristics will make for effective job performance, it can aid in personnel selections; by increasing understanding of how personality and job characteristics interact it can result in better hiring, transfer and promotion decisions, and by providing insights into personality development it can help to anticipate, recognise and prevent the operationalising of costly defenses by organisational members. There are certain procedures by which personalities can be predicted:

- 1) 'Rating Scales' from peers or friends help in predicting the behaviour.
- 2) 'Experimental procedures' which help in the assessment of some characteristics of person.
- 3) With the help of 'Questionnaire' one can assess behaviour of the other, provided the answers are genuine.
- 4) Projective Tests like Thematic Appreciation Test, Rorschach's Ink-Blot test help in predicting the personality of an individual.

These measures help in effectiveness of the organisation.

4.10 ATTITUDES

Attitudes are a way of responding either favourably or unfavourably to objects, persons, concepts etc. They are evaluative statements. They reflect how one feels about something. Attitudes are related to behaviour. It is an unidimensional variable, i.e., positive or negative. They are hypothetical constructs. It is something inside a person. It may be observed but the attitude itself cannot.

Attitudes in a person could be observed in three ways: 1) Direct experience with the person or situation. 2) Association with other similar persons or situations. 3) Learning from others their association with the person or situation. 'Direct experience' is the concrete experience stage of learning. Association is similar to abstract conceptualisation and generalisation. Learning from others is like reflection and observation. Attitudes evolve out of perception and learning process. One is not born with attitudes but acquires them through life experiences. But certain basic attitude of trust or mistrust occurs during the infancy. If a child's basic needs are met in a loving manner, the child will develop a sense of trust otherwise a sense of mistrust develops. The child also develops a sense of autonomy or shame and doubt. All these affects one's behaviour. And this linkage to behaviour is what managers are concerned with; and they also tend to understand the ways in which behaviour affects attitudes.

4.11 ATTITUDES AND ORGANISATION

In organisations, attitudes are important because they affect the job behaviour. These job related attitudes top positive or negative evaluations that employees hold about aspects of their work environment. There are three primary attitudes; job satisfaction, job involvement, and organisational commitment.

Job satisfaction refers to an individual's general attitude towards his or her job, which is either positive or negative, i.e., satisfied or dissatisfied.

Job involvement measures the degree to which a person identifies with his job, actively participates in it and considers his performance important to his self-worth.

Organisational commitment is an orientation in terms of loyalty, identity and involvement in the organisation. These attitudes are measured so that behaviours like productivity, absenteeism and turnover can be predicted.

Managers need not be interested only in understanding the attitudes of the people, but also in changing them. Since attitudes are learned they can be changed. Persuasive communications are used to change attitudes. But attitudes are slow to change.

Because they are based on deep-seated beliefs and values.

4.12 VALUES

Values are encompassing concepts. American Management Association indicated that values are at the core of personality, and that they are ,powerful, though silent force affecting behaviour.

Values are so embedded that it can be inferred from people's behaviour and their expressed attitudes. But values are a strong force in people. What may 'appear' to be strange behaviour in an employee can make sense if managers understand the values underlying that behaviour.

Rokeach (1973) "values represent basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence."

Rokeach divided values into two broad categories: 'Terminal values' relate to ends to be achieved e.g. comfortable life, family security, self-respect and sense of accomplishment. 'Instrumental values' relate to means for achieving desired ends,

e.g. ambition, courage, honesty and imagination. Terminal values reflect what a person is ultimately striving to achieve, whereas instrumental values reflect how the person get there.

Values are so embedded that it can be inferred from people's behaviour and their perception, personality and motivation. They generally influence behaviour. They are relatively stable and enduring. This is because, the way in which they are originally learned.

Allport (1951) identified six types of values.

- 1) **Theoretical** - Places high importance on the discovery of truth through critical and rational approach.
- 2) **Economic** - Emphasises to be useful and practical.
- 3) **Aesthetic** - Places the highest value on form and harmony.
- 4) **Social** - The highest value is given to the love of people.
- 5) **Political** - Places emphasis on acquisition of power and influence.
- 6) **Religious** - Concerned with the unity of experience and understanding of the cosmos as a whole.

People in different occupations place different importance on the six value types.

The knowledge that people have different types of values has led a few of the more progressively managed organisations to initiate efforts to improve the values - job fit in order to enhance employee performance and satisfaction. Texas Instruments for instance, has developed a programme to diagnose different value types and to match properly these types with appropriate work environments within their company.

Some individuals, for example, are classified as "tribalistic" - people who want strong, directive leadership from their bosses; some are "egocentric" desiring individual responsibilities and wanting to work as lovers in an entrepreneurial style; some are "sociocentric" seeking primarily the social relationship that job provides, and some are "existential", seeking full expression of growth and self-fulfilment needs through their work, much as an artist does. Charles Hughes, director of personnel and organisation development at Texas Instruments, believes the variety of work that needs to be done, in his organisation is great enough to accommodate these different types work personalities in such a manner that an individual and organisational goals are fused.

Work Values

Values provide a framework for making choices between desirable and undesirable responses. Values also refer to priorities that an individual assigns

to multiplicity of goals. These thus provide direction to and determine intensity of individual responses. The stronger the value system, the more intense will be the action in pursuit of that value. For an organisation to achieve unity of action amongst diverse employees, it is imperative for them to **articulate core values and seek adherence to those values by every individual**. The core values of an organisation are derived from the vision and expectations of strategic stakeholders.



Defining Values

Values may be defined as a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence that is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence.

As organisations struggle to survive in a highly uncertain and turbulent environment, they have no option but to carve out a space for themselves in the global economic order. Organisations can no longer afford to remain passive recipients of environmental forces; instead their sustained growth will depend on becoming active agents in transforming the environment to make it conducive to give expression to their ideas and intentions. It is these compulsions that have led most organisations to develop vision and articulate a set of values providing focus on their responses to the demands of internal and external stakeholders.

Values are derived from the basic assumptions held by a group of people about themselves, others and the world. They provide a framework enabling individuals to prioritise their actions, make a choice of options, determine preferred ways of responding and distinguishing between desirable and undesirable responses. Values thus influence all our decisions and actions and have a self-prophetic impact on our being. Given its significance, it is obvious that unity of action amongst employees towards the common purposes of the organisation cannot be achieved unless they adhere to a common set of values.

Values operate at three levels: individual, socio-cultural and organisational.

At individual level, values tend to differ in terms of their importance and intensity. Every individual therefore develops a hierarchy of values. Individuals belonging to the same socio-cultural milieu may differ in terms of their value system. Socio-cultural value systems are derived from the basic belief about the nature of society and its relationship with environment. It has its historical roots in cultural traditions and heritage of the society and in its triumphs and trials. Likewise an organisation designed by people develops its own value system arising primarily out of compulsions to survive as a viable entity.

Most organisations articulate core values such as quality, customer satisfaction, environmental protection, human resource development, human dignity and respect, technological development, social responsibility, etc.

Adherence to Core Values: Most organisations articulate certain core values that must be adhered to by the employees. Identification with these values by

the employees is significant, as it becomes a substitute for sacrifices made by them by virtue of their membership in the organisation. Employees learn to accept these values and start believing that the organisation will not do anything that would hurt them. The personal costs of working long hours, meeting strict schedules and the like are overcome by adhering to higher human values such as serving the community or the society with high quality products and services. In the power sector, some of the private utilities have demonstrated better adherence to core values than public sector undertakings. That is why the political leadership is forced to privatise distribution of power. How far is it true in the case of your utility?

Value Actualisation: Core values developed by an organisation must be internalized by all members so as to bridge the gap between the value system of the individuals and the whole. In the absence of conscious effort to develop shared value system, the employees will continue to adhere to their archaic value system derived from the old assumptions, or by the pre-dominant value system prevalent in their socio-cultural milieu. In either case, the organisation will not be able to optimally channelise the energies and efforts of its members towards purposive action.

Although organisations have been quick to realize the significance of value driven responses, and have thus articulated their core values, adherence or internalization of those values on the part of the employees still remains an illusion. Because of abstract nature of values, employees often find it difficult to give concrete shape and translate them in their day to day activity, divided as they are along the lines of function, hierarchical levels, nature of product and services'. It is advisable therefore within the overall framework of the corporate value system that every department, every function and identifiable product or service group must develop operational values relevant to the demands of their task and their respective contexts.

What should be the core values in a power utility? Managing the operation and maintenance of equipment to ensure good quality power supply, preventing commercial losses, instilling confidence in customers about correct billing, prompt redressal of grievances and above all giving them sympathetic hearing should be the minimum core values.

Globalisation and Core Values: One of the major challenges faced by the organisations functioning in the global economy is to maintain its core values, despite differences in respective local cultures in areas of its operation. It is quite likely that core values of an organisation are not congruent with the existing societal value system. This would necessitate special drive for upholding its core values. For example, most multinationals working in India have service orientation as an important core value. However, for an Indian company, due to the legacy of the state controlled economy, service orientation as a value is attached much less importance.

Box 1 gives the Vision, Mission and Core Values of NTPC, a reasonably successful Indian enterprise in power sector.

VISION

“To be one of the world’s largest and best power utilities, powering India’s growth”

MISSION

- Make available reliable and quality power in increasingly large quantities at appropriate tariffs, and ensure timely realization of revenues.
- Speedily plan and implement power projects, with contemporary technologies.
- Implement strategic diversification in the areas of R&M, Hydro, LNG and non- conventional and eco-friendly fuels and explore new areas like transmission, information technology, etc.
- Promote consultancy.
- Make prudent acquisitions.
- Continuously develop competent human resources to match world standards.
- Be a responsible corporate citizen with thrust on environmental protection, rehabilitation and as utilization.

CORE VALUES (COMIT)

- Customer Focus
- Organisational Pride
- Mutual Respect and Trust
- Initiative and Speed
- Total Quality

Values and Attitudes

Values are expressed in terms of **attitudes**, which, in turn, provide direction to one’s responses. For example, a Professor who believes strongly in the work ethics will tend to exhibit certain attitudes towards students and methods of studies as a means of reflecting this value.

In the pre-liberalisation era, value system in organisations grew primarily out of the societal value system. The organisations were thus microcosms of the larger society. In the current and emerging scenario, organisations need to make deliberate choice with regard to developing value systems which would enable them to gain and maintain competitive edge.

4.13 SOCIALISATION'S INFLUENCE ON PERSONALITY, VALUES AND ATTITUDES

Organisations play a major factor in people's lives and it has a significant impact on people's personality, values and attitudes. Socialisation is the process by which an individual adapts himself to the working environment and gains loyalty and commitment to an organisation. Through this process, a person learns the goals of the organisation, the means to achieve those goals, an employee's responsibilities and accepted ways of behaving in the organisation. In addition, the person learns the organisation's attitudes and values. As the person becomes socialised in the organisation, there is also a tendency to adapt to the attitudes and values of the organisation. Thus, the organisation influences the personality, values and attitudes of an individual.

Stages of Socialisation

- 1) **Pre-arrival stage:** Individuals develop preconceived notions about an organisation based on previous education, work experiences and contacts with organisation.
- 2) **Encounter with the Organisation:** A person's initial orientation, training and experiences with other employees who exhibit the accepted attitudes in the organisation all influence and change the person.

Change of the Person and Acquisition of the new attitudes and values:

When a person works in a company, he or she gradually learns what is expected and begins to develop a new personality that is consistent with the organisation depending, the person works for sometime in the same organization.

Socialisation process is not limited to the entry point in an organisation. Rather, it is a continuous process throughout person's career path.

Socialisation occurs every time employee makes a move in an organisation. As people move vertically up the organisation's hierarchy, they encounter different norms, values and attitudes. At the entry stage, employees must assimilate these new factors if they are to be successful, and the potential is there for an alteration of their personality.

Economic conditions, competitions and technological advances can cause an organisation to change its basic orientation: The resulting adaptation will bring new forces to bear on each organisation member - forces which may alter personalities

4.14 SCHEIN SOCIALISATION MODEL

Schein identified three ways in which individuals respond to the socialisation forces of the organisation and thus exert influence on their own personalities.

- 1) **Rebellion:** The new employee could attempt to fight the organisation. The result might be dismissal, or change in the organisation, or change in the person (regardless of whether the individual wins or losses).
- 2) **Creative Individualism:** Where an employee accepts the organisation's values and attitudes which are important and rejects the others. The employee

uses a combination of personal and organisational values in relation to the organisation.

- 3) **Conform:** A person could simply conform to the organisational forces and exert very little influence on the organisation.

Thus socialisation is a process that exerts influence toward changing personality. But previous socialisation, learning and attitude formation create forces that operate to maintain personality as a consistent type. Perceptual process filters socialisation forces in an attempt to maintain consistency between people's surroundings and their self-concept and it depends on strength of these forces. Personality, Attitude and Values continue to develop and evolve over a time. To understand the process of socialisation is necessary for a manager because it relates directly to work organisation.

4.15 SUMMARY

From this Unit, it was learnt that understanding human behaviour is essential for an effective manager, as it facilitates to achieve organisational goals better. The reasons for individual differences and approaches of understanding human behaviour are explained.

It was understood from this unit, that attitudes are opinions about things. Values represent deep-seated standards by which people evaluate their world. The past plays an important role in the development of attitudes and values. Personality is the result of person's experiences and genetic influences. Approaches, theories and determinants of personality were explained. Finally, the process of socialisation in an organisation that alters one's personality, values and attitudes was discussed.

4.16 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. How do you define personality? What are the specific traits that constitute the concept of personality?
2. Differentiate between introvert and extrovert personalities. Is one form of personality necessarily better than the other? Explain pros and cons of both types.
3. What are the determinants of personality? Which of them do you feel are more important in shaping personality?
4. Explain the Freudian and Erikson's stages of personality development.
5. Critically examine the psychoanalytic approach to personality.
6. Discuss the essence of social learning theory of personality.
7. According to you, which theory of personality is more comprehensive? Give reasons.
8. "Heredity determines personality." (a) build an argument to support this statement; and (b) build an argument against this statement.

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UNIT 5 **LEARNING AND BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION**

Objectives

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- understand the nature of learning process
- explain various theories on learning
- discuss how reinforcement helps in motivating a person to learn
- importance of learning in organisations
- understand the concept of behaviour modification
- importance of behaviour modification in organisations

Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Concept and Definition
- 5.3 Theories of Learning
- 5.4 Reinforcement and Learning
- 5.5 Role and Methods of Reinforcement
- 5.6 Punishment
- 5.7 Extinction
- 5.8 Organisational Learning
- 5.9 Learning Organisation
- 5.10 Behaviour Modification
- 5.11 Behaviour Modification Process
- 5.12 Organisational Behaviour Modification (OBM)
- 5.13 Summary
- 5.14 Self-Assessment Questions
- 5.15 Further Readings/ References

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Every action and behaviour of an individual has some element of learning involved. Behaviour is something which can be publicly viewed, but there is also an unobservable, inner cognitive behaviour which will influence the individual. Thus, the outcome can take the form of desirable or undesirable behaviour. Of course, only desirable work behaviour can contribute towards achieving organisational goals. That is why, it is necessary on the part of the individual employee to learn periodically new knowledge and skills. Further, learning

is a powerful incentive for many employees to stick to certain organisations. Learning has significant impact on individual behaviour as it influences abilities, role perceptions, and motivation. Along with its role in individual behaviour, learning is essential for knowledge management that enhances an organisation's capacity to acquire, share, and utilise its resources in ways that improve its survival and success.

In this unit, we try to understand the cognitive aspect and meaning of learning by analysing the various theories of learning. We have also discussed the role of reinforcement, both positive and negative, and its impact on employee behaviour. The unit concludes with focussing on the different reinforcement methods and its administration.

5.2 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION

The concept of learning is very important for organisational behaviour. It has assumed tremendous significance because everything that we do in an organisation, some learning is definitely involved.

The concept of learning can be used in many contexts. It refers to the process of acquiring the response adequately to a situation which may or may not have previously encountered.

A widely accepted simple definition of 'learning' is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience. As per this definition, one cannot see the process of learning but if there is a noticeable change in behaviour then it can be said that learning has taken place. This means we are actually seeing the changed behaviour in individuals as a result of learning. Thus, learning as a concept seems to be an abstract and a theoretical one and is not observable directly.

It is also said that learning is a relatively permanent change in the frequency of occurrence of a specific individual behaviour. In an organisational setting, it is the work-set and organisational norms, which will act as objective bases for determining whether an employee's behaviour is desirable or undesirable and whether he or she needs to learn and practise productive work behaviour. Thus, it is the process by which skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviour are formed and developed as a result of education, training, socialisation and experience.

Learning also occurs as a result of conditioning and restriction. A person is persuaded to adopt guidance or regulation or conformity and compliance based on each situational requirement. Moreover, people learn at different rates, times and stages during their life time. Of course, ultimately it is the individual's own needs and drives, and rewards that enhance one's potential and expertise, marketability along with increased esteem, and respect and status that will act as the motivational drive(s) in inducing the person to learn.

There are six important components of learning:

- 1) Learning involves change, although the change may be for good or bad from an organisation's point of view.
- 2) Not all changes reflect learning. To constitute learning, change should be relatively permanent.

- 3) Learning is reflected in behaviour. A change in an individual's thought process or attitudes, not accompanied by behaviour, is no learning.
- 4) The change in behaviour should occur as a result of experience, practice, or training.
- 5) The practice or experience must be reinforced in order for learning to occur. If reinforcement does not accompany the practice or experience, the behaviour will eventually disappear.
- 6) Learning occurs throughout one's life.

When employees learn, they acquire both explicit and tacit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is organised and can be communicated from one person to another.

Explicit knowledge can be written down and given to others. However, this is only a small portion of total knowledge.

Majority of the people have tacit or implied knowledge. Tacit knowledge is the idea that one knows more than what he or she can tell. Tacit knowledge is embedded in our actions and ways of thinking, but is not clearly understood and therefore cannot be communicated explicitly. This knowledge is acquired through observation and direct experience. Most knowledge in organisations is tacit and one of the challenges in knowledge management is to make implicit knowledge explicit so that it may be stored and shared more easily.

5.3 THEORIES OF LEARNING

In a work setting, how can learning take place? Four theories have been used to explain how learning can take place in a work setting. These are: classical conditioning theory, operant conditioning theory, social cognitive theory, and learning theory. Of the four, it is the operant conditioning theory and social cognitive theory which are more helpful in understanding the behaviour of others.

Classical Conditioning Theory

Classical conditioning is the process by which individuals learn to link the information value from a neutral stimulus to a stimulus which in the natural course will not cause a response-. Such learned behaviours (or reflexive behaviour) may not be under an individual's conscious control. In the classical conditioning process, an unconditional stimulus (environmental event) will result in a natural response. Then a neutral environment event (also referred to as conditioned stimulus) is associated with the unconditioned stimulus, which will bring out the behaviour. Subsequently, the conditioned stimulus by itself will bring out the behaviour, which is called the conditioned response.

The name most frequently associated with classical conditioning is the Russian physiologist, Ivan Pavlov, whose experiments with the dogs led to the early formulations of the classical conditioning theory. In Pavlov's famous experiment, the sound of a metronome (the conditioned stimulus) was associated and paired with the conditioned response - the salivation response. Eventually, as per the experiment, the dogs learned to exhibit a salivation response (conditional response) to the sound of metronome alone.

The process of classical conditioning can help to understand a variety of behaviours in organisational life. The special lights displayed in front of the emergency room in any hospital will indicate that a patient who immediately needs medical attention and treatment has arrived; whereas the lights displayed across the building during the opening of a new office will indicate the feeling of joy at the opening of a new business establishment.

Classical conditioning is a passive one i.e., when something happens we react in a particular way. Classical conditioning is not used in work settings mainly because the desired employee behaviours usually do not include responses which can be changed with classical conditioning techniques i.e., it can explain only simple reflexive behaviours and not the complex behaviours that occur in organisations.

Operant Conditioning Theory

B.F. Skinner is closely associated with this learning theory. Skinner proposed that behaviour is determined from outside, which means that it is a learned involuntary behaviour. The term operant conditioning is used in context of voluntary behaviours which are called operants, for they have some influence on the environment. Skinner had opined that if certain pleasant consequences were created to reinforce desirable forms of behaviour, there would be an increase in the frequency of such behaviour. This means that people will be engaged in desirable behaviours provided they are positively reinforced. Also that rewards would be more effective, if the desired behaviour is immediately rewarded. Further, undesirable behaviour if punished, is less likely to be repeated. In fact, most of our behaviours like walking, talking, working can be termed as operant behaviour.

Social Cognitive Theory

Skinner's work was extended by Albert Bandura and others by demonstrating that people learn new behaviour in a social situation, by watching others and then imitating their behaviour. According to the social cognitive theory, the 'social' aspect indicates the involvement of individuals to learn as a part of the society and the 'cognitive' part acknowledges that individuals use thought processes to make decisions. This theory has relevance to organisational behaviour because most of the work that goes on in organisations is based on the knowledge and behaviour generated by others in that organisation.

The social cognitive theory has five dimensions. Understanding of these five dimensions will help one to realise why employees behave differently while facing the same situation.

- **Symbolizing:** People have the tendency to use symbols, which help them to process visual experiences into models which will help them to guide their behaviour and then react to their environment.
- **Forethought:** Forethought is used by persons to anticipate, plan and guide their behaviours and actions.
- **Vicarious Learning:** Almost all forms of learning involve vicariously (or sharing imaginatively in the feelings or action of other persons) by observing the behaviour of other people and the consequences of that behaviour.

- **Self-Control:** Self-control learning is said to occur when a new behaviour is learned even in the absence of any external pressure.

Managers and colleagues of employees can use self-efficacy to help employees learn to believe in themselves. This is possible by creating situations in which the employee may respond successfully to the task required.

Human resource trainers have been using the social cognitive theory in the form of programmes and offer the same to organisations so as to instil team spirit, develop leadership skills, improve an employee's (including managers) self-efficacy and bring about managerial effectiveness.

Learning Theory

Learning theory approach emphasises the assessment of behaviour in objective, measurable (countable) terms. This implies that the behaviour must be publicly observable and does not give due importance to unobservable, inner, cognitive behaviour.

In organisations, desirable work behaviours will contribute towards achieving organisational goals. Conversely, undesirable work behaviours will hinder achievement of these goals. For instance, the HR manager may find the behaviour of a shop floor worker returning late from a coffee break as undesirable; while the friends of the worker may find the same desirable because he is satisfying his social needs. In the work set-up, certain organisational norms are prescribed. The more an employee deviates from the organisational norms, the more undesirable his behaviour is. These organisational norms will vary from organisation to organisation. For instance, in companies like Infosys all employees are encouraged to open up and communicate (two-way communication) with their superiors because professional interactions is considered to be healthy. As against this, among the defence forces, questioning of superior's instructions and orders will be treated as insubordination and may even invite severe disciplinary actions against the subordinate.

To be effective, a manager has to try and identify observable employee behaviours and the environment affecting these behaviours. Then he has to make efforts at controlling and guiding employee behaviour. Thus, the manager's goal will be to provide learning experiences in an environment that will promote employee behaviours desired by the organisation.

5.4 REINFORCEMENT AND LEARNING

Reinforcement as a term refers to the psychological process of motivating a person. Though used synonymously, there is a slight difference between motivation and reinforcement. Motivation is a fundamental psychological process and a broader connotation than reinforcement. Motivation can be referred to as an intrinsic process, whereas reinforcement is related to the environment. Simply put, reinforcement will be any action that a person finds rewarding. Few common reinforcement gestures could be a pat on the back, an increase in pay, and a day off or a citation.

Reinforcement is something which enhances the strength of the response and prompts repetitions of the behaviour that preceded reinforcement. From the

above perspective it may be noted that reinforcement is not merely a reward. This means that the reward aspect is something which is presumed to be desirable from the perspective of the presenter (or manager). Although, if the employee being rewarded does not find it sufficiently rewarding, then no reinforcement will take place.

Contingency of Reinforcement

Contingency of reinforcement refers to the relationship between a person's behaviour and the preceding and following environmental events which will influence that behaviour. A contingency of reinforcement comprises of an antecedent, a behaviour, and a consequence.

It should be noted that the presenting or withdrawal of a particular antecedent increases the probability of a particular behaviour likely to occur. For instance, managers should ideally prepare 'a list of to do' items every day. This list as an antecedent helps to organise their jobs/tasks for the day and also calls for their attention on specific behaviours required. A consequence will be the outcome or result of a behaviour, which can be either positive or negative in terms of accomplishment of the goal. The manager's response to an employee's behaviour is contingent on the consequences of the behaviour.

Reinforcement, punishment, and extinction play a key role in learning process. Reinforcement is used to enhance desirable behaviour while punishment and extinction are employed to minimise undesirable behaviour.

Reinforcement is always knowledge of feedback about the success of past behaviour. Feedback is information that can be used to modify or maintain previous behaviours. However, this information has to be perceived, interpreted, given meaning and used in decisions about future behaviours. The feedback has to be processed.

Reinforcement is the attempt to develop or strengthen desirable behaviour. There are two types of reinforcement – positive and negative reinforcement.

Positive reinforcement: Positive reinforcement strengthens and enhances behaviour by the presentation of positive reinforcers. There are primary reinforcers and secondary reinforcers. Primary reinforcers satisfy basic biological needs and include food, water, and sexual pleasure. However, primary reinforcers do not always reinforce. For instance, food may not be a reinforcer to someone who has just completed a five course meal. Most behaviours in organisations are influenced by secondary reinforcers. These include such benefits as money, status, grades, trophies, and praise from others. These become positive reinforcers because of their association with the primary reinforcers and hence often called conditional reinforcers.

Positive reinforcement is based on certain principles:

- The principle of contingent reinforcement states that the reinforcer must be admitted only if the desired behaviour has occurred.
- The principle of immediate reinforcement states that the reinforcer will be most effective if administered immediately after the desired behaviour has occurred.

- The principle of reinforcement size states that the larger the amount of reinforcement delivered after the desired behaviour, the more effect the reinforcer will have on the frequency of the desired behaviour.
- The principle of reinforcement deprivation states that the more a person is deprived of the reinforcer, the greater it will have on the future occurrence of the desired behaviour.

Negative reinforcement: An unpleasant event that precedes a behaviour is removed when the desired behaviour occurs.

Just as there are positive reinforcers, there are negative reinforcers as well. Negative reinforcers are the stimuli that strengthen responses that permit an organism to avoid or escape from their presence.

We see negative reinforcement in organisations and in personal life. Supervisors apply negative reinforcement when they stop criticising employees whose poor performance has improved. Also negative reinforcement occurs when parents give in to their childrens' tantrums – especially in public places, such as restaurants and shopping malls.

Thus, both positive and negative reinforcement are procedures that strengthen or increase behaviour. Positive reinforcement strengthens or increases behaviour by the presentation of desirable consequences. On the other hand, negative reinforcement strengthens and increases behaviour by the threat of and use of undesirable consequences. Negative reinforcement is sometimes confused with punishment, because both use unpleasant stimuli to influence behaviour.

Activity 1

In the context of your role as a student, identify examples of each schedules of reinforcement that influence your behaviour. Which works best? Why?

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5.5 ROLE AND METHODS OF REINFORCEMENT

From the discussions so far we have seen that reinforcement plays a major role especially in human resources management areas such as training, appraisal, adaption to change and performance. Moreover, reinforcement is also a powerful tool to increase desirable behaviour and reduce undesirable patterns of behaviour. It is to be remembered that more than reinforces, it is the pattern (or manner) and the time in which reinforcement is administered which has an impact on the resulting behaviour. So let us have a look at the methods of administering reinforcement in organisations.

There are four methods of administering reinforcement in organisations: (a) the fixed ratio method; (b) the variable ratio method; (c) the fixed interval schedule; and (d) the variable interval schedule.

a) Fixed Ratio Method

Under this technique reinforcement is given after a certain specified number of responses are shown. A fixed ratio which reinforces after every response is called 1 : 1 to begin with when learning progresses, we shift to a fixed ratio of 2 : 1, 4 : 1, and so on and so forth.

This technique can bring about a high rate of response. This is because when the employee realises that the reinforcement is contingent upon the number of responses, then he is motivated to perform well so as to achieve the specified award. An example is that other things remaining the same, the worker's performance should remain energetic and continue to be steady.

But in reality things may not be the same and this technique may not lead to the same kind of behaviour.

b) Variable Ratio Method

As per this method, a certain number of desired behaviours must occur before reinforcer is delivered. Managers make use of a variable ratio schedule with praise and recognition. State or other lotteries use this method of reinforcement to lure patrons.

c) Fixed Interval Schedule

Under this schedule, the reinforcement is administered after a specific period of time, which is measured from the last reinforced response. For example, in a fixed interval, one hour schedule, the first desired behaviour that occurs after an hour has elapsed is reinforced.

But administering rewards as per this schedule produces an uneven pattern of behaviour. Prior to the reinforcement, the behaviour is frequent and energetic but immediately after the reinforcement, the behaviour becomes less frequent and energetic. This behaviour could be because the person knows that the next reward will take time to come. A common instance of this reinforcement is the payment of wages to employees on hourly, weekly or monthly basis.

d) Variable or Interval Schedule

Either ratio or interval schedules can be administered on a variable basis. That is, the reinforcement is given in an irregular or haphazard manner. This variable interval schedule is slightly different from the variable ratio schedule. Under this schedule, the reward is reinforced after a randomly distributed length of time rather than after a specified number of responses. For instance, if it is said that the employee is being reinforced after a 50 minute variable interval schedule, it implies that on an average, the individual is reinforced after 50 minutes though the actual reinforcement may be given anywhere from every few seconds to every 2-3 hours.

Although we have mentioned the four most commonly used methods of reinforcement, quite a few organisations use a few combinations of these four reinforcements.

5.6 PUNISHMENT

Punishment is the attempt to eliminate or weaken an undesirable behaviour. It is in two ways – one way to punish a person is to apply a negative consequence called punishers – following an undesirable behaviour. The other way to punish a person is to withhold a positive consequence following an undesirable behaviour. Even though punishment may stop an undesirable behaviour of an employee, the potential negative outcomes may be greater than the cost of undesirable behaviour.

It is generally accepted that the reinforcing desired behaviour is more effective than punishing undesirable behaviour. However, C.C. Walters and J.E. Brusek (1977) suggested after a review of research that punishment can be effective if it meets the following conditions:

- The punishment should be quick and short.
- It should be administered immediately after the undesirable behaviour.
- It should be limited to its intensity.
- It should specifically relate to behaviour and not to character traits.
- It should be restricted to the context in which the undesirable behaviour occurs.
- It should not send ‘mixed messages’ about what is accepted behaviour.
- Penalties should take the form of withdrawal of rewards, not physical pain.

Managers rely on punishment because it produces faster and immediate change in the employee’s behaviour. However, it is imperative on the part of the manager to view the long term detrimental effects of punishment and only try to use a punishment suitable to the situational requirement.

Activity 2

What type of punishment should be used by the managers of your organisation for disciplining employees? Give reasons.

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5.7 EXTINCTION

An alternate to punishing undesirable behaviour is extinction. Extinction is the weakening of a behaviour by ignoring it or making sure it is not reinforced. The rationale for using extinction is that a behaviour not followed by any reinforcer is weakened. In other words, if rewards are withdrawn for behaviour that were previously reinforced, the behaviours probably will become less frequent and eventually die out. Extinction needs time and patience to be effective.

Extinction, as a type of reinforcement is applied to reduce undesirable behaviour, especially when such behaviours were previously rewarded. From organisational point of view, if an employee is consistently late to work and thus consistently fails to get praise from his superior and is not recommended for a pay raise, then we would expect this reinforcement to lead to “extinction” of the habit of behaviour of coming late to work.

5.8 ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

The importance of learning was first put forward by a Chinese philosopher, Confucius (551-479 BC) in these words: “Without learning, the wise become foolish; by learning, the foolish become wise”. Learning refers to relatively permanent changes in behaviour occurring as a result of experience. The concept of learning organisation is not new; many authors have talked about it from others and their own past experiences. Probably, Garratt was the first to publish a book on the subject in 1987. But the concept was popularised by Senge when his famous book “The Fifth Discipline” was released in 1990. Senge’s book triggered a great deal of interest in the subject of learning organisations. A large number of publications appeared on the subject during the current decade.

Concept and Definition

In 1970s, Argyris proposed the concept of a different qualitative learning. Contrasted with traditional learning, or the ‘single-loop’ learning (involving incremental change within an existing framework), ‘double-loop’ learning emphasised testing of the underlying assumptions and achieving transformational change. Senge contrasted adaptive learning with generative learning.

David Garvin (1993), defines a learning organization as “an organization skilled at creating, acquiring and transferring knowledge and at modifying its behaviour to reflect new knowledge and insights.”

The above definition is of interest for a number of reasons. First, it focuses on ‘behaviour’. Second, it implies that organisations have skills, an essential one being that of learning. Third, it focuses on ‘transferring knowledge’. Finally, the use of concepts such as ‘skills’, ‘knowledge’, and ‘modifying behaviour’ indicate a language suggestive of HRD practice.

Peter M. Senge in his ground breaking book, *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of The Learning Organization*, described a learning organization as “a place where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to learn together.”

Ross, Smith, Roberts and Kleiner advocate this definition: “Learning in an organization means the continuous testing of experience and the transformation of that experience into knowledge - accessible to the whole organization and relevant to its core purpose.”

Organisational learning means the process of improving actions through better knowledge acquisition, clearer understanding, and improved performance. It is a method of detecting and correcting errors. The main issues in organisational learning are (three Ms):

Meaning	- Well-grounded definition of learning organisations; It must be actionable and easy to apply.
Management	- Clearer guidelines for practice, filled with operational advice rather than high aspirations.
Measurement	- Better tools for assessing an organisation's rate and level of learning to ensure that gains in fact have been made.

Further, a learning organisation is one which facilitates the learning of all its members, and which continuously transforms itself.

5.9 LEARNING ORGANISATION

A learning organisation:

- Is an active philosophy; not merely an organisational system.
- Believes that its only competitive advantage is learning.
- Encourages people to learn to produce the results they desire.
- Nurtures creative and innovative patterns of collective learning.
- Develops fresh organisational capabilities all the time.

New ideas are essential if learning is to take place. Whatever their source, these ideas trigger organisational improvement. However, creating or acquiring new knowledge is not enough; what is more important is the successful application of knowledge in one's own activities. Learning organisations are skilled at five main activities:

1) Systematic Problem-Solving:

- Relying on the scientific method rather than guesswork for diagnosing problems.
- Insisting on data rather than assumptions, as background for decision-making.
- Depending on simple statistical tools to organise data and draw inferences

2) Experimentation:

- Systematic searching for and testing of new knowledge. Continuous improvement in new methods and technologies.
- Successful ongoing programmes to ensure a steady flow of new ideas, even if imported from outside the organisation.
- Demonstration of organisational capabilities by introducing self-managing teams and high level of worker autonomy.

3) Learning from Past Experience:

- Companies must review their success and failures, assess them systematically and record lessons in a form that employees find open and accessible.

- 4) Learning from Others:
 - Sometimes, the most powerful insights come from one's immediate outside environment.
 - Even companies in completely different businesses can be fertile sources of ideas and catalysts for creative thinking.
 - Best industry practices are to be uncovered, analysed, adopted and implemented.
 - The greatest benefits come from studying practices; the way work gets done rather than results.
- 5) Transferring Knowledge:
 - Knowledge must spread quickly and efficiently throughout the organisation.
 - Make use of mechanisms such as written and oral communications, site visits and tours, personnel rotation programmes, education and training programmes for transferring knowledge.
 - Transfer may be from division to division, department to department, or facility to facility; they may involve senior, middle, or first level managers.

Characteristics of Learning Organisation

Some of the common operational practices of learning organisations dealing with people are openness, systematic thinking, creativity, awareness of personal and organisational values, empathy and sensitivity.

Senge, who popularised the term learning organisation states that such organisations have the following five principles:

- 1) **Personal Mastery:** Creating an organisational environment, which encourages all its members to develop themselves toward goals and purposes they choose.
- 2) **Mental Models:** Reflecting upon, continually clarifying, and improving internal pictures of the world, and seeing how they shape our actions and decisions.
- 3) **Shared Vision:** Building a sense of commitment in a group, by developing shared images of the future and guiding principles and practices.
- 4) **Team Learning:** Transforming conversational and collective thinking skills, so that groups of people can reliably develop intelligence and ability greater than the sum of individual members' talents.
- 5) **Systems Thinking:** Thinking about, and a language for describing and understanding forces and interrelationships that shapes the behaviour of systems.

These principles translate into the following three key practices that enable an organisation to promote and support continuous learning:

- 1) The ability to learn from each other
- 2) The ability to learn from personal experience
- 3) The ability to learn from the system (that is, organisation successes and failures)

A learning organisation is characterised by:

Openness: The learning organisation has to be open to enquiry and tolerant of criticism and debate.

Innovation: The learning organisation has an organic structure and culture which permits it to evolve rapidly. It has a deep skill base and capacity to deal internally with complexity and uncertainty.

Strategic Orientation: The learning organisation cares both for its customer and its employees.

Pedler (1991), suggest eleven features or characteristics that will be present in a learning organisation. They are as follows:

- 1) The learning approach or strategy
- 2) Participative policy making
- 3) Informating
- 4) Formative accounting and control
- 5) Internal exchange
- 6) Reward flexibility
- 7) Enabling structures
- 8) Boundary workers as environmental scanners
- 9) Inter-company learning
- 10) Learning climate
- 11) Self-development opportunities for all

Organisations of the future will not survive without becoming communities of learning. It is absolutely essential for organisations to learn from their environments, to continually adjust to new and changing data, and just as in the case with the individual, to learn how to learn from the uncertain and unpredictable future.

Garvin argues that organisations learn through five main activities: (1) systematic problem solving; (2) experimentation with new approaches; (3) learning from their own experience and past history; (4) learning from the experiences and best practices of others; and (5) transferring knowledge quickly and efficiently throughout the organisation.

Organisational learning is the result of an ongoing process that includes the following:

Intrapersonal Processes

- 1) Assimilating information.
- 2) Translating that information into knowledge.
- 3) Applying that knowledge to real needs.
- 4) Receiving feedback to revise the information and reshape the knowledge.

Three levels of training interact to make up organisational learning:

- a) individual learning,
- b) small group learning; and
- c) whole organisational learning.

Individual learning occurs as each employee acquires the knowledge, develops the skills, and adopts the attitudes and beliefs that will help the organisation succeed.

Small group learning occurs as the members of a group discover together how best to contribute to the performance of the group as a whole. They learn from and about each other, they learn how to work effectively as a group, and how to apply that knowledge in order to achieve the purposes of the group.

Organisational learning occurs through the shared insights, knowledge, and mental models of the organisation. Organisational learning builds on past knowledge and experience, i.e., on organisational memory, which depends on institutional mechanisms (e.g. policies, strategies, and explicit models) used to retain knowledge.

Application of Learning in Organisations

Three systematic approaches to incorporating learning in organisations involve training, organisational behaviour management and discipline.

Training: Training is the process through which people systematically acquire and improve the skills and knowledge needed to better job performance. Many executive training programmes systematically attempt to develop the skills of their top managers. This is accomplished either by bringing in outside experts to train personnel in-house, or by sending them to specialised programmes conducted by outside agencies.

The principles that help in the effectiveness of training are:

- 1) **Participation:** People not only learn more quickly, but also retain the skills longer when they have actively participated in the learning process.
- 2) **Repetition:** The benefits of repetition for learning new skills or performing a task need not be emphasised.
- 3) **Transfer of Training:** What is learned during training sessions must be applied on the job.
- 4) **Feedback:** It is extremely difficult for learning to occur in the absence of feedback - that is, knowledge of the results of one's actions. Feedback provides information about the effectiveness of one's training.

Organisational Behaviour Management: It implies systematic application of positive reinforcement principles in organisational settings for the purpose of raising the incidence of desirable organisational behaviours. To be effective in using organisational behaviour management programmes, managers should:

- 1) Pinpoint the desired behaviour.
- 2) Determine exactly how will people perform the behaviour they wish to change.
- 3) Determine exactly what performance goal is being sought.
- 4) Decide exactly how the desired behaviour will be rewarded.
- 5) Facilitate learning by rewarding behaviours that come closer to the criterion.
- 6) Reevaluate the programme periodically.

Discipline: Just as organisations systematically use rewards to encourage desirable behaviour, they also use punishment to discourage undesirable behaviour. There are innumerable problems in an organisation such as absenteeism, late coming, theft, alcoholism, substance abuse, which cost companies vast sums of money. The companies manage such situations by timely administration of punishment.

Learning Disabilities

Senge in his book has identified a number of learning disabilities. Some of them are listed below:

- a) The myth of teamwork (i.e., most teams operate below the level of lowest IQ in the group).
- b) The delusion of learning from experience (i.e., attempting to understand the future by relying on the past, which means we solve the same problem over and over again, hence we make the problem worse).
- c) To offset the learning disabilities, he has enunciated Laws of the Fifth Discipline:
 - 1) Today's problems come from yesterday's "solutions".
 - 2) The harder you push, the harder the system pushes back.
 - 3) Behaviour grows better before it grows worse.
 - 4) The easy way out usually leads back in.
 - 5) The cure can be worse than the disease.
 - 6) Faster is slower.
 - 7) Cause and effect are not closely related in time and space.
 - 8) Small changes can produce big results — but the areas of highest leverage are often the least obvious.
 - 9) You can have your cake and eat it too — but not at once.

- 10) Dividing an elephant in half does not produce two small elephants.
- 11) There is no blame.

Developing the Learning Organisation

There are three primary tasks toward developing the learning organisation.

- 1) First, leaders and managers must create opportunities for learning.
- 2) Second, they must foster desirable norms and behaviours.
- 3) Third, they must personally lead the process of discussion, raise questions, listen attentively and provide feedback.

Organisations learn only through individuals who learn. Individual learning does not guarantee organisational learning; but without it no organisational learning occurs. The approach that needs to be taken is that learning must be continuous and integrated so that employees understand and accept the need for change which finally results in improved work culture.

Learning organisations are not built overnight. It is a slow and steady process of cultivated attitudes, commitments and management processes. Any company that wishes to become a learning organisation can begin by taking a few simple steps. The first step is to foster an environment that is conducive to learning. The second step is to open up boundaries and stimulate the exchange of ideas. The third step is to eliminate barriers that impede learning and assign learning a higher position in the organisational agenda.

Based on a large number of case studies, Ramanarayan and Bhatnagar (1993), laid out the following factors that facilitate organisational learning:

- 1) Commitment to well-defined organisational priorities.
- 2) Effective HRD systems.
- 3) Mechanisms of collective thinking.
- 4) Flexible and participative leadership styles.
- 5) Collaboration and teamwork.

They also found the following factors that hinder organisational learning:

- 1) Culture of complacency arising from past successes.
- 2) Excessive bureaucratic and centralised methods of working leading to delays.
- 3) Narrow definition of roles of organisational members in hierarchical organisation leading to loss of creativity among employees.
- 4) Due to preoccupation with day-to-day firefighting functions, less attention is usually given to important issues of change and innovation.

5.10 BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

Ashok was recently transferred to ABC firm's office in Mumbai. Though the

Manager did not know much about Ashok she realised that, Ashok was a little aggressive in his approach and whenever he was expected to work in a team, he would end up arguing. This was having grave impact on the other team members and the employees in the firm.

Udit worked as a clerk in accounts department of an organization. Any time a job was assigned to him, though he would try to do his best, he could never complete in time and would make lots of errors. This would not only affect his performance but would also impact the overall work of that department.

In the above case studies it can be seen that something is wrong with the behaviours of Ashok and Udit that may call for behaviour modification.

Before we try to understand what is behaviour modification, we first need to understand the term behaviour. Behaviour can be described as any overt manifestation of the individual. It can be related to what is said or done by the individual behaviour can be further described in terms of behaviour deficit or behaviour excesses. Behaviour deficit indicates absence or lack of something, where as behaviour excesses indicates certain behaviour that is not under control and is excessive. For example, in a work set up, if an employee is not been able to adequately interact with others which has resulted in lowering of team productivity and performance then it can be said that there is behaviour deficit. On the other hand is an employee has been very aggressive, which has resulted in damage to the organisational property then this can be termed as behaviour excessive. Such behaviours can cause problem and need modification.

Behaviour Modification is mainly based on learning theories and there are five main principles underlying this technique (Rao, 2003):

- 1) As human behaviour is mainly learned (except in case of maturation process), it is possible to modify it.
- 2) Behaviour can be changed based on the changes in the environment.
- 3) The principles of social learning can be effectively used to change or modify behaviour, for example, modelling can be used effectively to change behaviour (as is done in various advertisements).
- 4) The behaviour change can be an indicator of effectiveness of counselling or the behavioural modification process.
- 5) The counselling or the behaviour modification technique used needs to be based on the needs of the individual whose behaviour is to be modified.

Behaviour modification involves encouragement of desirable behaviour and removal or minimisation of behaviour that is undesirable. This can also be done with the help of reinforcement, which can be positive or negative. Behaviour modification thus involves techniques that are scientifically tested and can be used to reduce certain behaviours that are maladaptive in nature and increase behaviours that are healthy or adaptive.

The first reference to behaviour modification can be traced to an article written by Thorndike in 1911 titled “Provisional Laws of Acquired Behaviour or Learning in which he referred to ‘modifying behaviour’. Various learning theories

like Classical conditioning by Pavlov, Operant Conditioning by Skinner and social learning theory by Bandura further contributed to the development of this field. Various experiments were carried out by Skinner that indicated that behaviour could be modified with the help of reinforcements (both positive and negative).

Concepts in Behaviour Modification

Let us understand the significant concepts in this regard

- **Law of effect:** One of the main principles of behaviour modification is that the behaviour mainly depends of its outcome. Thus if the outcome is controlled or manipulated the behaviour can also be managed. For example, if the out come of tantrums by a child is gaining of the toy he/she wanted then the likelihood of this behaviour (of throwing tantrums) being repeated is high. But if the outcome is manipulated then this behaviour can be changed. Thus the law of effect has significantly contributed to behaviour modification. Law of effect states that “a person tends to repeat behaviour that is accompanied by favourable consequences and tends to not repeat behaviour that is accompanied by unfavourable consequences (Newstrom and Davis, 1997, pg 132). Thus this also requires the counsellor or the immediate superior or manager of the employee to identify the possible consequences that need to be modified or manipulated. In this regard either positive or negative reinforcement can be suitably used.
- **Positive reinforcement and shaping:** Using positive reinforcement increases the likelihood that the behaviour that is reinforced will be repeated. “A positive reinforcement is a stimulus or event which, when it follows a response, increases the likelihood that the response will be made again (Morgan et al, 1996, pg 149). For example, if an employees is punctual then this behaviour can be reinforced by his/ her manager/ supervisor by recognising it and even verbally complementing the employee. Yet another concept in this context is that of shaping. This mainly involves application of positive reinforcement in a more systematic and gradual manner. This can help shape the behaviour of the employee. For example, when a new recruit joins, the manager can systematically and gradually shape his/her behaviour towards becoming more productive by giving positive reinforcement as and when the right behaviour is displayed by him/her. Rewards can also be effectively used to promote right behaviours.
- **Negative reinforcement and punishment :** Using negative reinforcement increases the likelihood that the behaviour that is reinforced will not be repeated. “A negative reinforcer is a stimulus or event which, when its cessation or termination is contingent on a response, increases the likelihood that the response will occur again” (Morgan et al, 1996, pg 149) This mainly involves removal of an outcome that is not favourable. For example in order to avoid the smell of chemicals the employee is encouraged to use a mask. In this case the use of a safety device that is mask is reinforced due to the negative reinforcement that is created by the smell of the chemicals.

Punishment is not same as negative reinforcement and in punishment, the behaviour is followed by outcome that is not favourable. “ A punisher is a

stimulus or event which, when its onset is contingent on a response, decreases the likelihood that the response will occur again” (Morgan et al, 1996, pg 150). For example, if an employee has not been following the safety norms then he/ she has to pay a fine. Punishment have its own advantages and disadvantages. Whee on one hand it conveys strong message, on the other, the punisher may not be liked by others or the employee or subordinates.

- **Extinction:** It is also to be noted that if a particular reinforced behaviour is not reinforced, extinction of that behaviour could take place due to lack of reinforcement. For example, an employee who was earlier awarded for his/ her innovative ideas, was not reinforced recently when he/ she came up with a creative solution to an impending problem, then this behaviour is likely to become extinct. Thus the managers also need to be cautious in this regard so as to avoid certain favourable behaviours of the employees from going extinct.

5.11 BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION PROCESS

The behaviour modification process is discussed as follows:

- 1) **Setting of the goal:** The main goal of behaviour modifications is bringing about a change in behaviour, as discussed before, this change can be in terms of a behaviour that is newly developed like learning a new skill or further strengthening of a behaviour, for example, a person may have leadership skills but they can be further enhanced. It can also include maintenance of a particular behaviour like safety related behaviour and practices or hygienic behaviour and last but not the least, decreasing or eliminating the unwanted behaviour, aggressive behaviour, for example, can be completely eliminated.
- 2) **Behavioural Assessment:** As discussed above, before the behaviour modification process is started, the goal has to be whether behaviour is to be strengthened or reduce or a new behaviour is to be developed or a particular behaviour is to be maintained is to be decided. This can be decided based on the behavioural assessment. A behavioural assessment will help understand the problem in a better manner. This assessment includes the following:
 - **Frequency:** How frequent is the behaviour. For example, if a person has been aggressive just once, we can say that it was due to the situation and the person may not be as such aggressive by nature. But if the person has been aggressive a number of times then this is a matter of concern.
 - **Duration:** For how long the behaviour has been persistent is also important to be noted. For example, the duration that the employee has been aloof or upset or displaying lack of interest in job related activities.
 - **Intensity:** This has to do with the severity of the behaviour. For example, how extreme was the aggressiveness displayed by the employee.

The behaviour is further analysed with the help of functional analysis, that can be done using ABC,

A, that stands for Antecedent, that is, what happened before the behaviour B, stands for Behaviour, the behaviour of the employee C, stands for consequences. What happened after the behaviour.

3) **The intervention or techniques that could be used are specified:** To suggest or specify a particular intervention or technique it is necessary that

- the antecedent factors are mentioned and described,
- the consequences are also noted down,
- the goals of behaviour modification are specified and,
- target response that requires to be changed is noted

Once this is done then suitable technique for behaviour modification can be used.

4) **Evaluation and followup:** Evaluation and follow up are carried out to see if any change in the behaviour has taken place or not. If there are no changes in the behaviour after use of a particular intervention or technique, the same can be changed or modified.

Activity 3

Explain behavioural assessment.

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5.12 ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION (OBM)

OBM can be defined as “a programme in which manager identifies a work related behaviour and encourages the same by suitable intervention strategy having positive motivation till the undesirable behaviour is weakened and desirable behaviour is strengthened” (Singh, 2003 pg 330).

Organisational Behaviour Modification (OBM) can be described as a form of operant conditioning that mainly used by Lutherans and Kreitner in order to shape the behaviours of the employees (Quick, Nelson and Khandelwal, 2013). Stajkovic and Lutherans (1997) carried out a meta analysis of the effect of OBM on task performance. The review indicated that OBM had a positive and significant effect on the task performance of employees in both service and manufacturing organisations.

OBM can be effectively applied in an organisational set up in order to:

- Improve employee productivity
- Promote discipline amongst the employees

- Ensure and enhance the safety related behaviour of the employees.
- Development of training programs
- Employee self management

OBM also helps the immediate supervisors or managers to carry out an analysis of the employees' behaviour, the reasons for its occurrence and consequences so that it can be changed. Thus the manager/ supervisor can become more observant and learn to carefully monitor employee behaviour. In this context some of the general principles to be followed by the manager/ supervisor (Newstrom and Davis, 1997) are highlighted as follows:

- 1) **The behaviour that needs modification has to be identified:** The manager/ supervisor has to first identify the behaviour that requires modification. For example, if the employee has been frequently smoking in the workshop area, thus violating the norm of not smoking, this is the behaviour that needs modification.
- 2) **Using positive reinforcement whenever possible and sparingly using punishment:** Positive reinforcements should be used more often and punishments should be avoided and to be used only when absolutely necessary.
- 3) **Certain minor behaviours that are undesirable could be ignored:** Certain behaviours that do not have major repercussions or negative consequences could be ignored. This again will depend on the judgement of the manager/ supervisor.
- 4) **Shaping can be adequately used:** Systematic and gradual positive reinforcement can be used effectively to reinforce desirable behaviour.
- 5) **The time between the correct response or behaviour and the reinforcement should be minimal:** This is especially important as the employee will then associate the reinforcement with the behaviour and only then the likelihood of desirable behaviour being repeated and undesirable behaviour being avoided will increase. For example, if an employee achieved a target given to him in given time, then he/ she should be immediately rewarded.
- 6) **Reinforcement should be frequently provided:** This is also to be done to avoid extinction of behaviours besides to encourage desirable behaviours and discourage undesirable behaviours.

Role of Manager in application of OBM

The role of the manager and is extremely important in this context and besides above there certain other guidelines are to be followed by them (Furnham, 2005), these are discussed as follows:

- 1) All the employees should not be reinforced or rewarded in the same manner. In this regard there is no doubt that the manager has to be fair and just. However, the reinforcement or the reward should be linked to the individual performance or based on some criteria also needs to be informed

to the employees before hand. Further, the reinforcement provided should also match the behaviour or the performance output.

- 2) The employees need to know what is expected of them, only then they will be motivated to work in that direction. They should have a fair idea about whether quality, quantity or both is expected and how exactly they perform will be measured. There should be great transparency in this and further no discrimination should exist to ensure successful behavioural modification.
- 3) Besides informing the employees about what they are doing in a right manner, they also need to be informed of what they are doing wrong. For example, if an employee is not using safety devices, he/ she needs to be informed that it is wrong. Such feedback will help in bringing about behavioural change.
- 4) As it is said, praise in public but criticise in a closed room. In same lines any unwarranted behaviour preferably should be criticised or punished in absence of others as otherwise there could be detrimental effects as the employee may feel insulted and the necessary change will not be in the direction that it was expected.

The managers/ supervisors need to be adequately trained to use the principles and techniques of OBM in order for it to be effective. Besides the managers/ supervisor as well as the employees and the management should have positive attitude towards OBM and its application.

Criticisms of Organisational Behaviour Modification

Though to a greater extent organisational behaviour modification can be effectively used to modify behaviour, it has also been criticised. Most often the principles of behaviour modifications can be applied to very controlled situation, however, when it comes to situations involving subtle interactions and performances that are necessarily interdependent, it may not be possible to apply behaviour modification. This can be effectively used with workers or employees at lower levels, but not much evidence is available with regard to how it can be used successfully with higher level employees (Mckenna, 2012). OBM has also been criticised due to ethical issues, as it mainly involves manipulation of behaviour or even punishment and in this context what is right or wrong depends on the manager or superior. This can also be misused by the managers and they may abuse this power to control the behaviours of their subordinates. It is thus necessary that the manipulation of the behaviour is done in a constructive and positive manner

Activity 4

A) Define Organisational Behaviour Modification.

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B) Discuss the role of managers in application of OBM.

5.13 SUMMARY

In this unit, we tried to understand concept of learning and its relevance in organisations. Then it explained the concept of learning organisations and how they can be evolved. The process of behaviour modification and its relevance in organisations is explained.

5.14 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) What is learning? What are its distinguishing features?
- 2) What are the four basic reinforcement strategies employed in encouraging desirable behaviour and discouraging undesirable behaviour?
- 3) How do you distinguish between classical and operant conditioning? What relevance these concepts have in an organisational setting?
- 4) Explain the various approaches to learning. How does each approach differ from the other?
- 5) What are the schedules of reinforcement? In your opinion, which one of the schedules is more suitable for continuous desirable behaviour?
- 6) Define learning curves. Differentiate between positive and negative reinforcement.
- 7) What is learning organisation? What are its distinguishing characteristics?

5.15 FURTHER READINGS/ REFERENCES

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UNIT 6 PERCEPTION AND ATTRIBUTION

Objectives

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- understand the meaning and nature of perception
- identify various factors influencing perception
- explain different characteristics of perceiver and facets of impression management.

Structure

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Definition and Nature of Perception
- 6.3 Basic Elements in Perceptual Process
- 6.4 Factors Influencing Perception
- 6.5 Perceptual Organisation
- 6.6 Social Perception
- 6.7 Impression Management
- 6.8 Attribution
- 6.9 Perception: Errors and Remedies
- 6.10 Perception and its Application in Organisations
- 6.11 Summary
- 6.12 Self-Assessment Questions
- 6.13 Further Readings/ References

6.1 INTRODUCTION

We humans seem to attach meanings, interpretations, values and aims to our actions. What we do in the world depends on how we understand our place in it, depends on how we perceive ourselves and our social and physical environment, depends on how we perceive our circumstances. We explain behavior with terms like 'reasons', 'motive', 'intention', 'purpose', 'desire' and so on.

Therefore, the issue is- each one of us perceives the world around us in different ways. It is our personal perception of that reality which shapes and directs our behavior, and some 'objective' understanding of external reality. For example, if one person on a hillside perceives that it is cold, he will reach for his sweater. On the other hand, if the person standing next to him perceives that it is warm, he will remove his sweater. These contrasting behaviours can be witnessed happening at the same time, regardless of the actual ambient temperature as measured by a thermometer. Another example would be the universal assumption made by managers that subordinates always want promotion when,

in fact, many subordinates really psychologically forced to accept a promotion. Managers seldom attempt to find out and some times themselves do not know, whether promotion should be offered. In other words, the perceptual world of the manager is quite different from the perceptual world of the subordinates and both may be different from reality. Thus, it is clear that human behavior is a function of the way in which we perceive the world around us, and how we perceive other people and events in that world.

We often find ourselves unable to understand other people's behaviour. To understand each other's behaviour, we need to be able to understand each other's perceptions. First of all, we need to be able to understand why we perceive things differently.

Perception is the selection and organisation of environmental stimuli to provide meaningful experiences for the perceiver. It is the process through which the information from outside environment is selected, received, organised and interpreted to make it meaningful. It is an important input in individual behaviour. The receiver, the received, and the situation influences one's perception. It is an important variable affecting several areas of an organisation. The differences between the perceptual worlds of the employees and managers and the reality of the organisation will provide the basic inputs into the understanding of organisational behaviour.

In this unit, we try to understand the individual differences in terms of the various factors affecting perception, the perception process, and the working of perceptual organisation. Attribution theory also forms a part of this unit.

6.2 DEFINITION AND NATURE OF PERCEPTION

Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment – seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling. In simple terms, perception is understood as the act of seeing what is there to be seen. “The study of perception is concerned with identifying the processes through which we interpret and organise sensory information to produce our conscious experience of objects and object relationship.” It is the process of receiving information about and making sense of the world around us.

Perception implicates the search for obtaining and processing of the information in the mind. It can also be referred to as a psychological process where people obtain (or take) information from the environment and make sense of their worlds.

Very often two people who have seen the same thing end up interpreting it differently. The reason for such occurrence is because of the involvement of an extremely complex cognitive process mentioned above. Each person has a unique perception resulting in individual differences in processing information which is received. Perception plays a very important role in shaping the personality of an individual. Through the process of perception individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions, so as to provide meaning to their environment. It is possible that what is perceived by the individual may be quite different from actual reality.

Nature of Perception

It is to be noted that perception is a unique interpretation of the situation by the individual and that it is not an identical recording of it. Thus, we have to remember:

- Perception is a complex cognition process, giving a unique interpretation (or picture) of the world, which may be very much different from reality at times.
- There is a lot of difference between the perceptual world and the real world.
- Many of the problems occurring in organisations (related to organisational behaviour) are often found to be the problems of perception.

Activity 1

Choose a film that you have seen recently and which you enjoy particularly. Now, find a friend or colleague who has also seen the same film but disliked it. Share your views of that film. What factors (age, sex, background, education, interests, values and beliefs, social views, past experience, and so on) can you identify that explain the differences in perception between you and your friend or college?

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6.3 BASIC ELEMENTS IN PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

We process and interpret the incoming raw data in the light of our experiences, in terms of our current needs and interest, in terms of our knowledge, expectations, beliefs and motives. Perception may be defined as the dynamic psychological process elements in the perceptual process are illustrated in Figure 1.

From a psychological point of view, the process of sensation, on the one hand, and perception, on the other, work together through what are termed respectively 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' processing.

The bottom-up phase concerns the way in which we process the raw data received by our sensory apparatus. One of the key characteristics of bottom-up processing concerns the need for selectivity. We are simply not able to process all of the sensory information available to us at any given time. Bottom-up processing screens or filters out redundant and less relevant information so that we can focus on what is important.

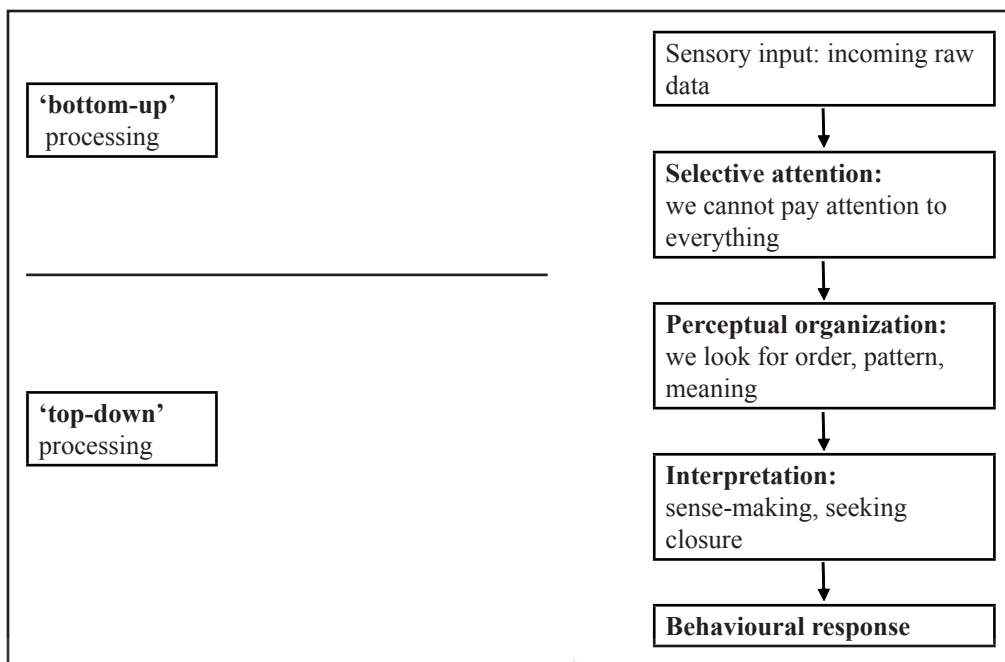


Figure 1: The Process of Perception

On the other hand, 'top-down' phase concerns the mental processing that allows us to order, interpret and make sense of the world around us. One of the key characteristics of top-down processing concerns our need to make sense of our environment and our search for meaning.

This distinction between sensation (bottom-up) and perception (top-down) can be illustrated in our ability to make sense of incomplete or even incorrect sensory information. For example, the missing letter or comma, or the incorrectly spelled term, does not normally interfere with the comprehension of the human reader:

This sentence is incorrect, but you will still be able to understand it

In the above example, our top-down conceptual processing ability means that we are able to fill in the gaps and correct the mistakes and thus make sense of 'imperfect' incoming raw data.

All of us have a similar nervous system and share more or less common sensory equipment. However, we have different social and physical backgrounds which give us different values, interests and expectations and therefore different perceptions. We do not behave in, and in response to, the world 'as it really is'. This idea of the 'real world' is somewhat arbitrary. In fact, we have, and in response to, the world as we perceive it. We each live in our own perceptual world.

Perception is a dynamic process because it involves ordering and attaching meaning to raw sensory data. Our sensory apparatus is bombarded with vast amounts of information. We are not 'passive recorders' of this sensory data. We are constantly sifting and sorting this stream of information, making sense of it and interpreting it. Therefore, it can be said that perception is an information-processing activity. This information processing concerns the phenomena of selective attention (perceptual selectivity) and perceptual organisation.

Selective attention is the ability, often exercised unconsciously, to choose from the stream of sensory data to concentrate on particular elements and to ignore others. The internal and external factors which affect selective attention are illustrated in Figure 2.

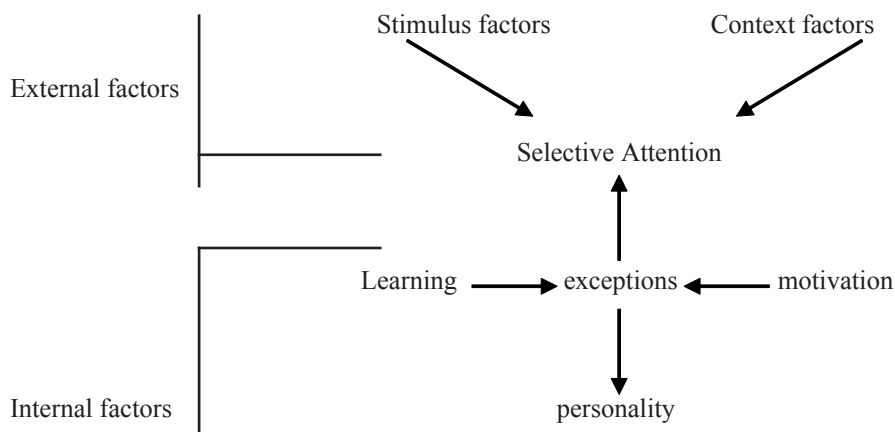


Figure 2: External and Internal Factors Influencing Selective Attention

The external factors affecting selective attention concern stimulus factors and context factors. With respect to the stimulus factors, for example, our attention is drawn more readily to stimuli which are described in Table 1.

Table 1

large	rather than	small
bright		dull
loud		quiet
strong		weak
unfamiliar		familiar
moving		stationery

However, it may be noted that we do not merely respond to single feature rather we respond to the pattern of stimuli available to us.

Activity 2

Identify examples of the ways in which advertisements creatively use stimulus factors to attract or attention in newspapers and magazines and on billboards and television.

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Our attention is also influenced by context factors. For example, the naval commander on the ship's bridge and the cook in the kitchen may both have occasion to shout "fire", but these identical utterances will mean quite different things to those within earshot and will lead to radically different forms of behaviour (involving the taking and the saving of lives respectively). Thus, it is clear that knowledge of the context also affect our attention.

The internal factors affecting perception are:

- **Learning:** Our past experience leads to the development of perceptual expectations or perceptual sets which give us predispositions to perceive and to pay attention to some stimuli and to ignore other information.
- **Personality:** Our personality traits also predispose us to perceive the world in particular ways, to pay attention to some issues and events and human characteristics and not others.
- **Motivation:** We are more likely to perceive as important, and thus to respond to, stimuli that we find motivating.

Much of perception can be described as classification or categorisation. We categorise people as male or female, lazy or energetic, extrovert or shy. We classify objects as cars, buildings, furniture, crockery and so on and we refine our classification schemes further under these headings. It may be noted here that these categories are learned. They are social constructs. What we learn is often culture-bound or culture-specific. For example, the British revulsion at the thought of eating dog (classified as pet), the Hindu revulsion at the thought of eating beef (classified as sacred) and the Islamic aversion to alcohol (classified as proscribed by the Koran) are all culturally transmitted emotions based on learned values.

However, different people within the same culture have different experiences and develop different expectations. The internal factors- our past experience and what we have learned, our personalities, our motivations- contribute to the development of our expectations of the world around us, what we want from it, what will happen in it and what should happen. We tend to select information that fits our expectations and pay less attention to information that does not.

Our categorization process and the search for meaning and pattern are key characteristics of perception. This perceptual work is captured by the concept of perceptual organization. Perceptual organisation is the process through which incoming stimuli are organized or patterned in systematic and meaningful ways.

Max Wertheimer first identified the principles by which the process of perceptual organization operates. The 'proximity principle' states that we tend to group together or to classify stimuli that are physically close to each other and which thus appear to 'belong' together. For example, note how you 'see' tree pairs rather than six blobs here:



The 'similarity principle' states that we classify or group together stimuli that resemble each other in appearance in some respect. For example, note how you 'see' four pairs here, not eight objects:



The fact that we are able to make use of incomplete and ambiguous information by 'filling in the gaps' from our own knowledge and past experience is known as the 'principle of closure'.

It has been noted that often different people perceive a situation differently, in terms of what is selectively perceived and how it is organised, interpreted and finally perceived by them. Individuals receive stimuli from the environment through their five sense namely, taste/smell/hearing/sight/touch. There is a tendency to selectively pay attention to certain aspects of the environment. In other words, a person's perceptual selection may be on account of the interplay of a complex set of factors, some are the internal factors while some form a part of external factors. Say, for instance, the personal secretary to the manager may ignore the sounds (or voices) of the other employees talking but jumps up and becomes alert as soon as the telephone starts ringing.

The next step involves the **perceptual organisation**. Since there will be variations in how people interpret what they perceive i.e., the person organise the stimuli selected into meaningful pattern depending upon the circumstances and the state of mind of those involved.

PERCEPTUAL SETS AND PERCEPTUAL WORLDS

In this unit, you have seen how the perceptual process selects incoming stimuli and organizes them into meaningful patterns. It has also been shown that this processing is influenced by learning, motivation and personality – factors which give rise to expectations. These expectations, in turn, make us more ready to respond to certain stimuli in certain ways and less ready to respond to others. This readiness to respond is called the individual's perceptual set.

A perceptual set is an individual's predisposition to respond to events in a particular manner. A perceptual set is also known as a mental set. As we tend to perceive what we expect to perceive, this can also be called our perceptual expectations. We must accept the fact that two people can observe the 'same' thing but perceive it in quite different ways. Many organisational problems, and particularly communication problems are created by failure to appreciate this feature of the perceptual process. For example, top management of an organisation may perceive that junior employees are overreacting to trivial issues and may dismiss their complaints lightly. On the other hand, the junior employees may perceive that their grievances are genuine and that the top management are simply not taking them seriously. In a situation like this, it makes little sense to ask whose perceptions are correct. The starting point for resolving issues such as this must lie with the recognition that different people hold different, but equally legitimate, views of the same set of circumstances.

Another common example is the differences in perception that occur between the union and management. Some researchers believe that perceptual differences are a major explanation for industrial disputes. The same "facts" in a dispute are perceived quite differently by union members and by management. For example, union members may perceive that they are underpaid whereas management perceives that they are overpaid for the amount of work they do. In reality, pay may have nothing to do with the ensuing dispute. It might be due to the workers not having control over their own jobs and getting any recognition and they are reacting by perceiving that they are underpaid.

We each have a perceptual world that is selective and partial which concentrates on features of particular interest and importance to us. The individual's

perceptual world is their personal internal image, map or picture of their social. Physical and organisational environment. Through the processes of learning, motivation and personality development, we each have different expectations and different degrees of readiness to respond to objects, people and events in different ways.

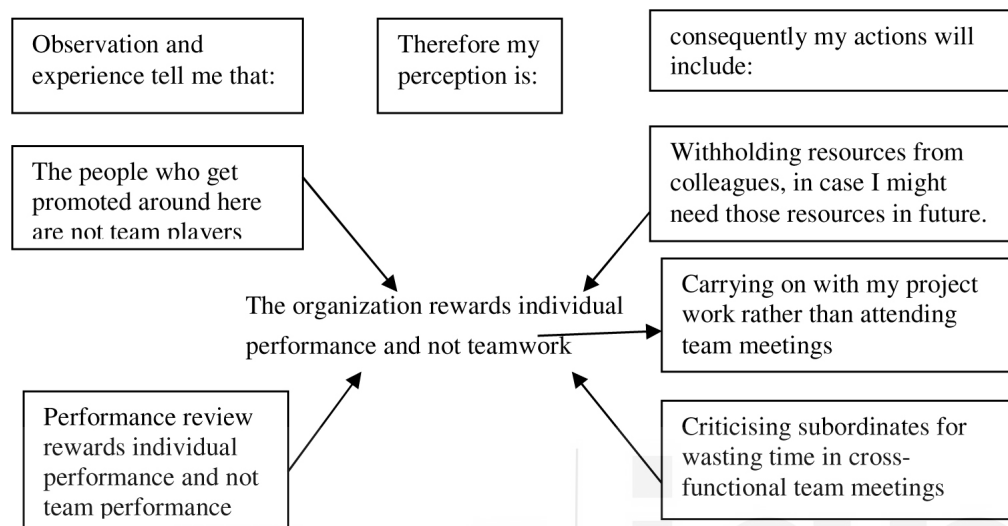


Figure 3: The information-perception-actions link

It may be noted here that our perceptions, that is the meanings that we attach to the information available to us, shape our actions. Behaviour in an organization context can usually be understood once we understand the way in which the individual perceives that context. Figure 3 illustrates the links between available information based on observation and experience, the perception based on that information and outcomes in terms of decisions with respect to actions.

Cultural factors also play a significant role in determining how we interpret available information and experience. Perceptual learning and development take place in the context of socio-cultural environment. It is therefore expected that the socio-cultural background of the individual will influence his/her perceptions. Accordingly, the nature of perceptual organisations will vary.

For example, one well-known piece of research compared the pace of life in six countries (Britain, Italy, Indonesia, Japan, Taiwan and the United States) by measuring:

- The accuracy of clocks in city bank branches,
- The speed at which city pedestrians walked, and
- The length of time it took to buy a postage stamp.

The research revealed that Japanese cities had the most accurate clocks, the fastest pedestrians and the most efficient post office clerks. Indonesian cities, in contrast, had the least accurate clocks and slowest pedestrians. Italy had the slowest post office clerks.

Therefore, it is clear that to understand an individual's behaviour, we need to know something of the elements in their perceptual world and the pattern of information and other cultural influences that have shaped that world. To

change an individual's behaviour, therefore, we first have to consider changing their perceptions through the information and experiences available to them.

6.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION

It has been understood that each one of us may be the same person, object or event and yet think of it differently. Supposing you visit an arts and craft exhibition, took a look around and then ask your friend also to visit the exhibition. Later on, when you exchange notes with your friend, you will be surprised to note that your friend's views and expressions about the display differ. Usually individuals are involved in a process of perceptual selection whereby people filter out most stimuli so that they can deal with the most important ones. This process depends on several factors. Let us have a look at those factors which affect the perceptual process:

The Perceiver

- **The understanding of what a person interprets when looking at the object or target being perceived will be influenced by the personal traits of the individual who perceives this:** For instance, we presume an individual is planning to purchase a car then it is observed that he starts noticing other brands of cars (falling within his budget) with more interest. Of course, this results in the purchase of a particular brand of car which is influenced by his perception. And this is how factors associated with the perceiver can greatly influence his or her perceptual process.
- **Attitude influences a person's perception:** We can take example, Suma and Uma are two friends who have cleared their bachelor's degree in management and are interested in pursuing further studies and get into reputed business management institutes for obtaining a MBA degree. In order to improve their personality, both of them get enrolled; into a well-known personality development centre. Suma enjoys interacting in a small group because of personal interaction between the lecturer and the student group. However, Uma basically being an introvert preferred to be a part of a large group so as to enjoy anonymity amidst the group. When both Suma and Uma sat down for the first session on 'personality development', with a class of fifty students, Suma seemed unhappy to be amidst a large class while Uma looked relieved to be able to merge unnoticed into the large class. This example reveals that both Suma and Uma saw the same thing but interpreted it differently.
- **Unsatisfied needs or motives influence an individual's perception strongly:** This particular aspect was highlighted in a study with hungry subjects. This research study revealed that people who had been hungry for as long as 16 hours saw more frequently images of food when they were shown blurred pictures in comparison to those who had been hungry only for a short time.
- **The perceptual process can also be influenced by one's interest:** For instance, a fashion designer is more likely to be noticed a beautiful outfit worn by a girl crossing the road rather than the traffic policeman. This can be because his chosen profession has narrowed down his focus.

- **One's experience in the past can also narrow down one's focus. And newness or novelty also influences perception:** An individual has the tendency to perceive those things (or objects) to which he or she can relate. But very often one's past experience may reduce or nullify an object's interest.

In India, the breaking away of the joint family set-up and making way to the working couple nuclear family set up had not been easily accepted by the society especially during the 70's and 80's of the century. However, from the 90's onwards with a significant increase in the number of women joining industries and also occupying senior managerial positions, there is a gradual change and people's negative perception/views/apprehensions about women executives is slowly taking a back seat.

- **Expectations also influence an individual's perception:** At times expectations can affect one's perception such that if we expect to see something we may actually end up seeing that. For instance, if we expect lawyers to be unscrupulous, politicians to be corrupt, youngsters to be rude and so on, we will perceive them to be so, totally ignoring the individual's real traits.

The Target

Perception is impacted by the motion, sound, size and other such characteristics of the target. This usually occurs because the target is not perceived in isolation but along with its background. Moreover, we have a tendency to group close things and similar things together.

- **What one sees and perceives (observes) will generally depend on how one separates the figure from its general background:** For instance, when the lecturer uses the blackboard for teaching and for writing uses white chalk pieces, the students are not seeing them as patches of white chalk but recognise each alphabet and see the words accordingly.
- **At times even physical and time proximity makes one put together objects or targets even when they are unrelated:** For instance, recently we have been hearing of plane crashes involving fighter planes and domestic plane carriers. Suddenly many people may conclude that it is dangerous to travel by air. Though the above incidents may be unrelated, their proximity in time may have led people to develop such unrealistic perceptions about flying.
- **At times people have the tendency to perceive people, objects or events that are similar to each other also as being grouped together:** Greater is the similarity, more is the probability of perceiving them as a common group.

The Situation

The context in which we perceive events or objects is also important. There are elements in our surrounding environment which influence our perception. For instance, if the managing director of a company calls for a meeting with his general managers, and on that day a junior manager makes a small mistake, the general manager is more likely to register and notice that which otherwise on

any other normal day would have been overlooked. If, say a person attired in a dhoti-kurta were to enter the office premises, he is likely to draw more eyes compared to if he were to be attired in the same dress when walking around in the compound of his house. This means that perception is influenced by various situational factors such as time, location, light, heat and so on. These may simultaneously impact the perception process making it extremely complex.

In brief, the following are the factors influencing perception:

The Perceiver

- Attitudes
- Motives
- Interests
- Past experience
- Expectation

The Target

- Background
- Physical and Time Proximity
- Novelty
- Motion
- Sounds
- Size

The Situation

- Time
- Work environment
- Social environment
- Light
- Heat

Activity 3

Identify examples of the way in which advertisements creatively use stimulus factors to attract our attention in newspapers and magazines, billboards, and television.

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6.5 PERCEPTUAL ORGANISATION

Perceptual organisation is the process by which people group environmental stimuli into recognizable pattern.² That is, an attempt is made to explain what happens during the perceptual process when information from the situation is received. A person is not likely to perceive patches of colour, or light or smell. On the contrary, the person usually perceives some organised patterns of stimuli and clearly whole objects which are identifiable.

For instance, if your father gifts you a motor bike, you do not merely perceive the colour, or mileage or looks or the seat cover but you perceive the motor bike as a whole. Simply stated, a person's perceptual process organises the incoming information into a meaningful whole. Even though it is still too early (because a lot is still to be learned) to clearly state on how the human mind assembles, organises and categorises information.

Now, let us take a look at some forms of perceptual organisation, namely: Figure-Ground principle, perceptual grouping, perceptual constancy, perceptual context and perceptual defence.

Figure-Ground Principle

According to this principle perceived objects will be separate from its background. i.e., the figure is always perceived to be in contrast to its background and hence will be noticed. Of course, the manner in which the figure is perceived will depend upon the background. For instance, if one were to have a look at the triangles given below:



What is your observation of the above diagram? yes, you must have noticed the one dark triangle in the centre more prominently than the other triangles. This is because of that triangle's dissimilarity (it has darker shade than others) and its position is in the centre of the diagram. Thus, very often our perception of a particular object (or person) is also shaped depending upon the positioning of that object.

Perceptual Grouping

This fundamental principle of perceptual grouping refers to the tendency to group several stimuli into a recognisable pattern. This grouping is usually done on the basis of continuity, closure, proximity and similarity. These factors are briefly explained below:

- a) **Continuity:** The tendency to perceive objects as continuous patterns.
- b) **Closure:** This refers to the tendency to close or complete an object or event and perceive it as a whole even though only a part of the object is evident.

- c) **Proximity:** This refers to the tendency to perceive a group of objects to be related merely because of their closeness.
- d) **Similarity:** More is the similarity between the objects (or ideas), greater is the tendency to perceive them as a common group.

Perceptual Constancy

“Perceptual constancy can be said to be a sophisticated form of perceptual organisation. Constancy will highly be appreciated in this tremendously changing and highly complex world. Perceptual constancy works on the principle of learning and that it (perceptual constancy) emanates from patterns of cues.

According to this principle, irrespective of the information received by the senses, the size, shape, colour, brightness and location of an object remain fairly constant. The patterns of cues are very often learned by the individual. This learning takes place even though each situation is different and there are interactions between the inborn and learned tendencies within the entire perceptual process.

It is this constancy which helps people to make sense and order out of the chaotic world we live in. For example, with the sudden exit of a financial executive from the firm ABC, a chartered accountant is hired and within a short span of time he is able to put the financial statements in the desired sequence. Take another example, have you not witnessed the ease with which a plumber picks up a particular piece from the heap of plumbing material. In both the above examples, it is due to constancy that both the chartered accountant and the plumber were able to go ahead with their task. For if it were not so, both of them would have seen the size, colour, and shape change every time they looked around and would not have been able to perform their job efficiently.

Perceptual Context

Perceptual context is the highest form of perceptual organisation. It is this context which gives meaning and value to simple stimuli, objects, events, situations, and other individuals in the environment. For instance, just take a look at some doodles given hereunder:



Is one able to understand the meaning of these doodles? Obviously No! But if these doodles were to be communicated in a verbal or written context, it would have indicated some understanding or meaning to a person. This can also be explained with reference to an organisation. The organisation structure and organisation culture are a primary context for the employees and all their behaviour will be relevant to this. For instance, within the organisation, a piece of information communicated in the form of a circular, a notice, a suggestion, a pat on the back, a smile, and a raised eyebrow will acquire a special meaning and added value when placed in the context of the work organisation. Since each context is unique, it will impart a special connotation or meaning to stimuli.

Perceptual defence can be said to be a form of perceptual error, which could occur in reference to perceptual context. It is based on the principle that may prompt a person to build up a defence (or a block or a refusal) to recognise a stimulus or a situational event in a context which may be personally or culturally unacceptable or threatening. Simply put, perceptual defence refers to the tendency among people to protect themselves against ideas, objects or situations which may seem threatening.

6.6 SOCIAL PERCEPTION

Of particular interest in organisational behaviour is the process of social perception or person perception. Person or social perception is the process by which individuals attribute characteristics or traits to other people. It is closely related to attribution which will also be discussed in this unit later on.

The concept of social perception has relevance to organisational behaviour because here the object being perceived in the environment is another person. Even though an understanding of perceptions of situations, events and objects are important, it is the knowledge of individual differences in perception of other people which plays a crucial role in employee behaviour in work environment. Thus, social perception is merely concerned with knowing how one individual perceives other individuals.

We usually categorise factors that influence how a person perceives another in terms of:

- Characteristics or attributes of the person being perceived
- Characteristics of the perceiver
- Situation or context within which the perception takes place.

Characteristics of the Perceiver

The profile of the perceiver can be as follows:

- a) If a person knows himself, it will be easier for him to see others accurately.
- b) One's own characteristics affect the traits one is likely to see in others.
- c) People who accept themselves are more likely to see the positive aspects of other people.
- d) Perceiving others accurately is not a single skill.

The above mentioned characteristics of the perceiver can highly influence the way in which one perceives others.

Characteristics of the Perceived

There are also certain characteristics of the person being perceived which can influence the social perception process. The following are characteristics of the perceived one which influences social perception:

- a) One gets influenced by the status of the person perceived.
- b) To simplify the viewer's perceptual activities, the person being perceived is usually put into two categories — status and role.
- c) The visible attributes of the person perceived also affect and influence the social perception process.

Thus, it is such attributes which make the social perception a very complex phenomenon. It is important to note that usually one's social perception process is greatly influenced by one's own characteristics and also the characteristics of the other person. Let us take an example. For instance, if the marketing manager with a high self-esteem sees an attractive and pleasant regional manager (sales) is relocated to head office, the marketing manager is likely to perceive the regional manager in a favourable and positive frame of mind. But if the marketing manager was a person with average or low self-esteem while the regional manager is confident and outspoken and aggressive, he may be perceived in a negative and unfavourable manner. Thus, attributes do play a significant role in social perception. Simply stated, very often we have the tendency to perceive others through the filters of our own image of ourselves.

Situation

The setting or situation also influences one's perception about others. The situation may be particularly significant especially while understanding first impressions or primary effects. For instance, when you happen to meet somebody for the first time in a five-star hotel accompanied by a well-known personality whom you admire and respect, such an association is likely to have a positive influence on your assessment of the new acquaintance. But, if he is with someone whom you dislike intensely, you are likely to form a negative first impression.

Of course, the initial perception may change over a period of time when you interact more with the person and get to know him better. Nevertheless, the first impression may come in the way to colour your later perception of the individual.

Problems in Social Perception

There are four common problems or errors which affect the social perception process namely, halo effect, stereotyping, projection, and expectancy.

Halo Effect Error

Evaluation of another person solely on the basis of one attribute, either favourable or unfavourable, is called the halo effect. This means the halo effect blinds the perceiver to take notice of the other attributes which also are to be considered if the evaluator has to obtain a complete and accurate impression of the other person. Managers have to make efforts to guard against the halo effect especially during a preliminary interview with a prospective employee or rating an existing employee's job performance. One trait may be singled out and used for passing judgment on the performance of the individual. For instance, the interviewer may perceive a beautiful candidate to be suitable to be a personal secretary, though actually she may be a poor typist and bad

secretary. Or an excellent attendance record may indicate perceptions of high productivity, quality work and industriousness irrespective of whether this is accurate or not.

Stereotyping

Stereotyping refers to the tendency to assign attributes to a person solely on the basis of a category of people of which he or she is a member. People have a tendency to expect someone identified as a doctor, lawyer, or a politician to possess certain attributes even if they have met few others who did not have these attributes.

Stereotyping often results in attributing favourable or unfavourable traits to the person being perceived. Very often the person may be aware of only the overall category to which the person being perceived belongs and is thus put into a stereotype. (The perceiver fails to recognise the characteristics that will distinguish the person as an individual and his unique traits and qualities). For instance, common man may refer to a politician saying “he is a politician and hence will be corrupt.” It can be inferred from this statement that what the common man may want to say was that because he belongs to the class of politicians he can safely be labelled as “corrupt”.

Stereotyping affects social perceptions in organisations where the most common stereotyped groups are managers, blue collared workers, supervisors, administrative staff and trade union members.

Projection

Under certain conditions, people tend to see in another person traits that they themselves possess. That is, they project their own feelings, tendencies, or motives into their judgement of others. This may be particularly true regarding undesirable traits which the perceiver possesses but fails to recognise in himself. For example, an individual who is himself not very energetic may see others as lazy or may explain their lack of achievement as resulting from their unwillingness to work hard. One who is dishonest may be suspicious of others and may perceive dishonest intentions in others where they do not exist. People who are afraid may interpret others' behaviour as fearful or anxious.

Expectancy

Expectancy is a tendency to perceive people, objects or events on the basis of what we expected them to be in the first place. It is sometimes referred to as “pygmalion effect”. Pygmalion was a mythical Greek sculptor who made a statute of a girl that he wanted and made her come to life so that what sprang to life was what he expected. Through expectancy, one may create certain things in the work situation that he/she is expected to start with. This aspect is also known as “self-fulfilling prophecy”.

6.7 IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT

Impression management sometimes also referred to as self-presentation may be defined as an attempt by an individual to manipulate and control the impression that others form about them (the person). In a simple way impression management can be said to be the process by which people attempt to manage or control the

perceptions formed by others. People have a tendency to present themselves in such a way that they seek to impress others in a socially desirable manner.

Impression management plays an important part in understanding a person's perception. Impression management has two distinct facets.

- Impression motivation (the degree to which an individual actively manages the impression that he or she makes).
- Impression construction (how an individual has consciously chosen an image to convey and also on how he goes about doing that).

Everybody is concerned about the impression that he or she makes on others. In organisations also the employee may be motivated to control the way his superior perceives him. Of course, the extent of motivation to impression management will depend on the relevance of impressions to the person's goals, value of these goals, and the differences between the image one would like others to hold and the image one believes others already have.

It is said that there are five factors which have relevance on the kinds of impression that people try to construct. These are: self-concept, desired and undesired identity images, role constraints, target values, and current social image. However, there is only little information on how people select ways to manage other's perceptions of them. But there is no doubt about the fact that in organisations the impression made on others may make significant implications on an employee's career.

Impression Management Strategies

Here we briefly touch upon two basic strategies used by employees to manage impressions. When an employee tries to minimise his responsibility for an unfavourable event or say he wants to be out of trouble, he may use a demotion-preventive strategy. On the other hand, when an employee wants to maximise responsibility for a favourable outcome or wants to portray a better image of himself or herself, then he or she may use a promotion-enhancing strategy.

The demotion preventive strategies may take the form of:

- a) **Justification of action:** If not completed his work, the employee may try to justify himself by saying that he was not keeping well.
- b) **Forwarding an apology:** The employee may apologize to the boss for some unfavourable happening and tries to impress upon his boss that he is extremely sorry for the occurrence and promises to see that it does not reoccur.
- c) **Disassociation:** When an employee is indirectly associated with something that went wrong, he will try to convey the impression that he was only distantly associated and in spite of being against the decision/action was overpowered by others.

Some of the promotion-enhancing strategies can take the form of:

- a) **Entitlements:** When an employee feels that he has not been given due credit for the work done, he will communicate either formally or informally his feelings to the people concerned.

- b) **Enhancement:** When an employee may have received credit but feels that he deserves more, he will highlight about how his efforts in the future can result in enhanced profits.
- c) **Obstacles disclosure:** Under this strategy, the employee is trying to create the perception that since his achievements have been on account of the big obstacles (either personal or organisational hindrances) cleared by him, he deserves more credit.
- d) **Association:** Here the employee tries to be seen with the right people at the right time to create the impression that he is well connected and associated with successful projects.

The above strategies are adopted to build impressions and perceptions. Thus, employees have to be wary of such deliberate attempts at manipulation while evaluating people.

Impression management has its impact on the success of getting a job and also on his or her career. It also has an influence on his or her relationships with others. Superiors feel better disposed towards those subordinates who manage to project better image.

Impression management is not practised only by individuals. Organisations also seek to create impressions. Called the corporate image, organisations gain considerably by this exercise. A good corporate image means better employees, expanded markets, and more responsive investors.

6.8 ATTRIBUTION

Attribution is the process by which we make sense of our environment through our perceptions of causality. An attribution, therefore, is a belief about the cause or causes of an event or an action. Fritz Heider and Harold Kelley developed attribution theory during 1950s and 1960s. They stated that our understanding of our social world is based on our continual attempts at causal analysis based on how we interpret our experience.

Why is that person so successful? Why did that project fail? If we understand the causes of success, failure and conflict, we may be able to adjust our behaviour and other factors accordingly. Attribution is simply the process of attaching or attributing causes or reasons to the actions and events we see. Causality is usually described in terms of internal causality and external causality. For example, we may explain a particular individual's success or promotion with reference to his/her superior skills and knowledge (internal causality) or with reference to luck, 'friends in high places' and coincidence (external causality).

In recent years, attribution theories have been playing an increasingly important role in work motivation, performance appraisal and leadership but are also recognized to influence perceptions. Attributions have been found to strongly affect evaluation of others' performance, to determine the manner in which supervisors behave towards subordinates and to influence personal satisfaction with one's work. For example, what the manager perceives as the cause of a subordinate's behaviour will affect the manager's perception of and resulting behaviour toward the subordinate.

Research has revealed patterns in our attributions. For instance, when we are explaining our personal achievements, we point to our capabilities. But, when we are explaining our lack of success, we blame our circumstances. On the other hand, when speaking about others, we tend to attribute success and failure to personality features. In psychology, this tendency to exaggerate the influence of personality when explaining the behaviour of others to overlook the effect of contextual factors is known as the fundamental attribution error.

Attribution refers to the tendency one develops to explain the ways in which a person judges another person's behaviour. Very often we make attempts to understand the more lasting causes behind others' actions by interpreting their traits, motives and intentions through the attribution process. Simply stated, an attribution is the complex process in which we observe others' behaviour and try to infer causes behind it from various areas.

With reference to social perception there are types of attributions which people generally tend to make. These are:

- a) Dispositional attributions (such as personality traits, motivation or ability) or internal factors.
- b) Situational attribution (social influence of others, equipments, and so on) or external factors.

The attribution theory makes attempts to explain how individuals when observing behaviour attempt to determine whether it is internally or externally caused, based on three factors: (1) Distinctiveness, (2) Consensus, and (3) Consistency. There are significant contributions from attribution theories especially in the areas involving psychological and personality processes like motivation, performance appraisal and leadership.

Attribution theory has important implications for managers. If the manager attributes poor performance to internal factors, he or she can adopt certain strategies to improve those factors. On the other hand, if the manager attributes poor performance to external factors, he or she can take relevant steps relating to performance improvement.

Let us take an example in an organisational setting. When the production manager notices the outstanding performance of his supervisor, the assessment of his performance will depend on the causes to which he attributes this performance. If he believes that the performance of the supervisor is on virtue of his competence and inner drive, he may praise him and also reward him. If the production manager believes that the performance is the result of using a newer and superior technology, he is likely to treat it in a different manner. This means that perceptions and the subsequent behaviours change depending upon whether internal or external situational attributes are made.

One can make attribution to oneself. If one attributes pay raise to hard work, he or she continues to work hard. Instead, if poor performance is attributed to external factors (such as boss's friendliness) he or she may put more effort into cementing that friendship.

The fundamental attribution error is: (a) the tendency to underestimate the influence of external factors and overestimate the influence of internal factors when making judgements about the behaviour of others; and (b) the tendency for individuals to attribute their own success to internal factors while putting the blame for failures on external factors.

6.9 PERCEPTION: ERRORS AND REMEDIES

The main sources of errors in perception include the following:

- i. Not collecting enough information about other people.
- ii. Basing our judgements on information that is irrelevant or insignificant.
- iii. Seeing what we expect to see and what we want to see and not investigating further.
- iv. Allowing early information about someone to affect our judgement despite later and contradictory information.
- v. Accepting stereotypes uncritically.
- vi. Allowing our own characteristics to affect what we see in others and how we judge them.
- vii. Attempting to decode non-verbal behaviour outside the context in which it appears.
- viii. Basing attributions on flimsy and potentially irrelevant evidence.

Thus, it is clear that errors in perception can be overcome by:

- i. Taking more time and avoiding instant or 'snap' judgements about others.
- ii. Collecting and consciously using more information about other people.
- iii. Developing self-awareness and an understanding of how our personal biases and preferences affect our perceptions and judgements of other people.
- iv. Checking our attributions- particularly the links we make between aspects of personality and appearance on the one hand and behaviour on the other.

Therefore, it can be said that if we are to improve our understanding of others, we must first have a well-developed knowledge of ourselves- our strengths, our preferences, our weaknesses and our biases. The development of self-knowledge can be an uncomfortable process. In organisational settings, we are often constrained in the expression of our feelings (positive and negative) about other people due to social or cultural norms and to the communication barriers erected by status and power differentials. This may in part explain the enduring emphasis in recent years on training courses in social and interpersonal skills, self-awareness and personal growth.

Adrian Furnham (1997) argues that the process of making evaluations, judgements or ratings of the performance of employees is subject to a number of systematic perception errors. This is particularly problematic in a performance appraisal context. These are:

Intrapersonal Processes

- Central tendency: Appraising everyone at the middle of the rating scale.
- Contrast error: Basing an appraisal on comparison with other employees rather than on established performance criteria.
- Different from me: Giving a poor appraisal because the person has qualities or characteristics not possessed by the appraiser.
- Halo effect: Appraising an employee undeservedly on one quality (performance, for example) because s/he is perceived highly by the appraiser on another quality (attractiveness).
- Horn effect: The opposite of the halo effect. Giving someone a poor appraisal on one quality (attractiveness) influences poor rating on other qualities (performance).
- Initial impression: Basing an appraisal on first impressions rather than on how the person has behaved throughout the period to which appraisal relates.
- Latest behaviour: Basing an appraisal on the person's recent behaviour.
- Lenient or generous rating: Perhaps the most common error, being consistently generous in appraisal mostly to avoid conflict.
- Performance dimension error: Giving someone a similar appraisal on two distinct but similar qualities, because they happen to follow each other on the appraisal form.
- Same as me: Giving a good appraisal because the person has qualities or characteristics possessed by the appraiser.
- Spillover effect: Basing this appraisal, good or bad, on the results of the previous appraisal rather than on how the person has behaved during the appraisal period.
- Status effect: Giving those in higher level positions consistently better appraisals than those in lower level jobs.
- Strict rating: Being consistently harsh in appraising performance.

6.10 PERCEPTION AND ITS APPLICATION IN ORGANISATIONS

People in organisations are always assessing others. Managers must appraise their subordinate's performance, evaluate how co-workers are working. When a new person joins a department he or she is immediately assessed by the other persons. These have important effect on the organization.

Employment Interview: Interviewers make perceptual judgments that are often inaccurate. Different interviewers see different things in the same candidate and arrive at different conclusions about the applicant. Employment interview is an important input into the hiring decision, and perceptual factors influence who is hired and vis-à-vis the Quality of an organisation's labour force.

Performance Appraisals: an employee's performance appraisal is very much dependent on the perceptual process. An employee's future is closely tied to his or her appraisal- promotions, increments and continuation of employment are among the common outcomes. The performance appraisal represents an assessment of an employee's work. While this may be objective most jobs are evaluated in subjective impression of an employee's work, to the degree that the managers use subjective measures in appraising employee's the evaluator perceives to be 'good or bad' employee characteristics/behaviours will significantly influence the appraisal outcome.

Assessing Level of Efforts: In many organisations, the level of an employee's effort is given high importance. Assessment of an individual's effort is a subjective judgement susceptible to perceptual distortions and bias.

Assessing Loyalty: Another important judgement that managers decide about employees is whether they are loyal to the organisation.

Implications of Perception on Performance and Satisfaction

Productivity: What individuals perceive from their work situation will influence their productivity. More than the situation itself than whether a job is actually interesting or challenging is not relevant. How a manager successfully plans and organises the work of his subordinates and actually helps them in structuring their work is far less important than how his subordinates perceive his efforts. Therefore, to be able to influence productivity, it is necessary to assess how workers perceive their jobs.

Absenteeism and Turnover: Absence and Turnover are some of the reactions to the individuals perception. Managers must understand how each individual interprets his job and where there is a significant difference between what is seen and what exists and try to eliminate the distortions. Failure to deal with the differences when individuals perceive the job in negative terms will result in increased absenteeism and turnover.

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction is a highly subjective, and feeling of the benefits that derive from the job. Clearly this variable is critically linked to perception. If job satisfaction is to be improved, the worker's perception of the job characteristics, supervision and the organization as a whole must be positive.

Understanding the process of perception is important because (1) It is unlikely that any person's definition of reality will be identical to an objective assessment of reality. (2) It is unlikely that two different person's definition of reality will be exactly the same. (3) Individual perceptions directly influences the behaviour exhibited in a given situation.

The important fact is that people who work together often see things differently, and this difference can create problems in their ability to work together effectively.

In order to decrease the errors involved in perception, one has to keep in mind the way the perceptual process works. By understanding the process one can do a better job at minimizing their negative effect. Secondly, one can compare one's perception with other people, if they are representing different backgrounds,

cultures or training. This may lead to agreements or otherwise, communications can help to sort out the differences. Thirdly, one should understand other person's point of view, it may help to know when one is wrong. The point is that one should listen and understand the other person rather than try to convince him or her that one is right. Fourthly, one should be willing to change, when one comes across new information. Finally, one should view the world in dynamic terms, because one's behaviour can alter the phenomenon that is the basis for one's perceptions, so, one must notice the impact of one's own behaviour.

In short, it can be said that perceptual skills can be enhanced by:

- 1) Knowing and perceiving oneself accurately.
- 2) Being emphatic i.e. to see a situation as it is experienced by others.
- 3) Having positive attitudes, which helps in reduction of perceptual distortions.
- 4) Enhancing one's self-concept, which helps in perceiving more accurately.
- 5) Making a conscious effort to avoid the possible common biases in perception.
- 6) Communicating with employees to erase incorrect perceptions.
- 7) Avoiding attributions.

Perception is an important process in an organization. It plays a vital role in forming the basis of one's behaviour by which one formulates a view of the world.

6.11 SUMMARY

- Perception is the act of seeing what is there to be seen.
- Perception refers to the process of receiving stimuli, selecting, grouping, understanding, and reaction to the external stimuli.
- Perception is influenced by the object of perception, the perceiver, and the situation in which the process occurs.
- A person's needs, habits, impact of past experience, ethics and values, attitudes and personality, all influence the perception process.
- Perceptual process comprises five important stages: (a) receiving, (b) selecting, (c) organising, (d) interpreting, and (e) reacting to the stimuli.
- Each stage in the perceptual process is influenced by several factors.
- Perception plays spoil sport with human behaviour.
- Barriers like stereotyping, halo effect, projection, attribution and self-fulfilling prophecy distort perception.
- Halo effect refers to the tendency of perceiving people in terms of good or bad and assigning all good qualities to one who is good and bad qualities to one who is bad.

- Stereotyping, one of the most common barriers in accurately perceiving others, is a tendency to classify people and events into already known or perceived general categories.
- Projection refers to a tendency for individuals to see their own traits in others.
- Expectancy is the extent to which prior expectations bias perceptions of events, objects, and other persons.
- Perceptual defence is the tendency among people to protect themselves against ideas, objects or situations that may seem to be threatening.
- Being an important variable in individual behaviour, perception needs to be managed effectively.
- Social perception is the process of understanding other people accurately.
- Perceptual organisation is the process by which people group stimuli into patterns.
- Figure-ground principle states that the perceived object or person or event stands out distinct from its background and occupies the cognitive space of the individual.
- Perceptual grouping includes similarity, proximity, closure, continuity, and area.
- Previously held beliefs about objects influencing an individual's perceptions of similar objects is called perceptual-set.
- Role of perception is more felt in performance assessment of employees.
- Impression management refers to the calculated efforts to get others to think of them in the best possible way.
- Attribution is a corollary of perception.
- Attribution has implications for perception, leadership, and motivation.
- Attribution theory refers to the process in which people interpret the reasons or causes for their behaviour.
- Attribution theory suggests that we observe behaviour and then attribute causes to it; i.e., we attempt to explain why people behave as they do.

6.10 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) Define perception. Explain the perception process.
- 2) What is perception? Why does perception fail?
- 3) Why is it important for managers to have working knowledge of perception and attribution?
- 4) What do you mean by perceptual errors? Cite suitable examples.

- 5) How does perception affect the organisational process? What type of perceptual processes would be detrimental to the efficient operation of an organisation?
- 6) What is attribution theory? What is its application in OB?

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UNIT 7 MOTIVATION

Objectives

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the concept of motivation;
- discuss the concepts related to employee motivation; and
- describe the techniques that can be used for motivating employees.

Structure

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Motivation: Evolution of the Concept
- 7.3 Types of Motivation
- 7.4 Motivation and Morale
- 7.5 Motivating employees in actual practice
- 7.6 Motives and Managerial Behaviour
- 7.7 Summary
- 7.8 Self – Assessment Questions
- 7.9 Further Readings/ References

7.1 INTRODUCTION

We all know that motivation drives a person to achieve beyond normal. As such, it is a environment can also make individuals think: What motivates people? How can I motivate others? By asking about the source of motivation, one is looking for an understanding or explanation of what is known psychologically about the tendency of people to expand their energies. By asking how to motivate others, a manager is assuming (a) that s/he can affect the behaviour of others, and (b) that his/her effect can override the other's behaviour.

Motivation as a factor influencing human behaviour became an area of increasing importance after the Second World War to fulfill the imperative need of increased production. Motivation, concerned with all important human inputs, assumes crucial importance when a system is confronted with challenges of development or a crisis situation.

What is motivation? Who is responsible for motivation: individual or management? The answers to these questions are not simple. While some see motivation as being contained within an individual, others view it as arising from sources outside the individual. As such, these views cannot be considered independent of each other especially in the organisational context. Motivation in an organisation encompasses forces both within and external to the individual member. Let us now learn how the concept of motivation evolved.

7.2 MOTIVATION: EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT

Literally, motivation means incitement or inducement to act or move. In an industrial setting, it means to make a subordinate act in a desired manner. Obviously “desired” implies the interests of the organisation, as well as the employee. It implies not only that the subordinate should act in a disciplined manner, but also that s/he should act in an efficient and productive manner. To motivate, therefore, is to persuade, stimulate, even compel (as and when fear becomes the motivator) an employee to act in a manner which may help in attaining organisational objectives. This may be a limited view. Motivation really comprises all the internal urges which are described as desires, wishes, drives, etc., which make a person strive for doing a thing. Motivation is what makes people do things. Motivation may not be the same as incentive. In incentives we generally expect greater output with the same inputs, while motivation involves some more inputs considered necessary for changing the work, attitude and behaviour. As such, financial incentives may not motivate all, particularly those employees whose physical needs are already satisfied. To motivate means really to produce a goal-oriented behaviour, which may not be made possible by mere provision of incentives with the object of higher earnings and higher output.

The importance of motivation is too obvious. Survival and growth of an undertaking depends considerably on the performance of its employees, which in turn, depends on their ability and will to work. The ability is determined by the quality of education, training and experience that one has acquired. Even if there is any deficiency in the same, it can be made good by arranging further training and developing facilities for them. The willingness to work involves change in behaviour and attitude of a person towards work, or motivating him/ her to work in a desired manner and give better performance. Motivated workforce is essential for efficient working, optimum productivity, and attaining organisational objectives. The motivation in personnel management follows planning and organising. Any managerial decision becomes meaningful, if it can be converted into an effective action through motivation of subordinates. In fact, every aspect of personnel function is pervasively endowed with motivational attributes. Therefore, a successful personnel manager incorporates the principles and concept of motivation into her/his own philosophy of management. By applying them s/he can influence others in attaining a better or positive motivation.

Now you know that motivating people is difficult. But it is very challenging for changing human behaviour. The study of motivation began to attract attention in the early part of the 19th century. However, with the development of theories of learning, it came to occupy a central position. The application of psychology in education and industry led us to realise that motivation as a process is highly significant in achieving excellence. However, in spite of the relevance and popularity of motivation, its applicability was not well understood till 1953 when McClelland extended its applicability in industry, education and a wide range of areas and contexts. He identified achievement motive and developed a general theory of motivation and method of measuring

the same. According to him, motivation consists of the learned anticipation of a goal as arousing positive or negative emotional reaction. His ideas highlighted an ever increasing significance of the entrepreneurial roles in society vis-à-vis organisation, especially so in economic development.

Another concept of motivation is in the form of five human needs placed in hierarchical order: **Psychological, safety/security, social, self-esteem and self-actualization**. This concept is based on assumption of internal motivation – the needs, wants and desires, which exist within an individual and influence him/her by determining his/her thoughts. These, in turn, determine the ultimate behaviour in a particular situation.

The underlying assumption here is that individual motivation depends on urgency and potency of the needs. As the lower order needs are satisfied, the higher order needs take precedence over them.

Another way of looking at motivation is in terms of the internal dynamics of an individual vis-a-vis the power of contextual factors like money, work conditions, etc. An entirely different hypothesis of motivation is based on the nature of man, i.e., being lazy, idle and indolent or creative, open-minded and energetic. An idler is averse to any effort and would like to avoid any kind of responsibility. Idlers prefer being directed and avoid being independent decision makers. They only work under direct control and threat of punishment. For a creative person, the work is as pleasant and natural as play. Responsibility is a welcome concept and such people seek self-regulatory behaviour. Motivation is also influenced by an organisation, and its style of management. Management styles can be depicted to be in a continuum. This concept is based on the effectiveness of management in ensuring participation of subordinates in decision making and action orientation. This theory of motivation is action oriented and projects the organisation as a task oriented, highly structured and authoritarian establishment on one hand and completely democratic, people oriented and emphasizing a participative management style on the other extreme. These are interspersed with two intermediate stages system where definitive relations between superior and subordinates have varying trust and confidence.

In the late nineteen sixties and thereafter, the concept of motivation expanded its horizon and in that process lost some of its sharp focus on human needs but in no way lost the significance for organisations and their members. The emphasis shifted from the study of motivational notions to such fields as job enrichment, quality of work life, meaning of work, organisational climate and to a very broad spectrum of organisational culture. There has been a paradigm shift in understanding the relevance and contribution of motivation vis-à-vis organisations. The enmeshing of individual identity with his/her motivation is being given a wider but well defined boundaries of social/organisational context. This may have caused some haziness in understanding and application of the concept. A psychologist likes to put a premium on the individual, whereas an organisational strategist would like to focus on the collectiveness. And the debate continues. Since each organisation is unique in its boundaries and contextual parameters, so is an individual. The concept of motivation and its complexities helps us understand and create a unique relationship between the two.

Some Common Assumptions about Motivation

- i) It is commonly said that it is the subordinates or non-supervisory staff in an organisation who need to be motivated. The fact, however, is that every one in an organisation needs to be motivated; first the supervisory and managerial staff need it so that they will be able to motivate their subordinates.
- ii) Motivation and higher productivity go together. This may be true by and large, but individual motivation at the workplace or group motivation as in the case of trade unions may not have such a correlation with productivity.
- iii) All motivational techniques are designed and applied by the personnel, and managers and other line executives, who directly control and take work from those under them. In fact, the latter are more concerned as it is their primary function to see the persons under them work most efficiently. As they are in closer touch with their workers, they can understand their problems better and also know their needs. If necessary, they can take the advice of the personnel or industrial psychologist or any other consultant.
- iv) Standard theories of motivation developed by psychologists will also apply to the industrial situation with varying degrees of dependability.

7.3 TYPES OF MOTIVATION

In an industrial set-up, motivation may be intrinsic as well as extrinsic. **Intrinsic motivation** is related to the job one is doing. When a skilled operative performs a job well, s/he derives a sense of satisfaction. This is intrinsic motivation which satisfies the creative instinct of an individual.

Extrinsic motivation is external to the job or task. For example, financial incentives for doing a job well or giving higher production may motivate the workers. Other external motivators are praise from the superior for good work, recognition of good performance by the company in the form of public citation and award, admiration of fellow workers, and improved working conditions and other facilities.

Determinants of Motivation

The traditional approach that a person could be made to work by monetary rewards has been gradually giving place to a more complete pluralistic explanation which recognizes that an individual works to fulfill a variety of needs. It is recognized that the motivation is the result of the following three groups of factors:

- i) **Individuals:** To know what can motivate employees, we must know their aims, objectives and values. Human needs are both numerous and complex, and often it is difficult to identify them. Motivation is not an easily observed phenomenon. We have to first observe individual action and behaviour at work and interpret the same in terms of the underlying motivation. Our interpretation may not necessarily reveal the individual's true motivation, as some of the human needs may be difficult to describe and identify.
- ii) **Organisational Components:** Organisational structure, technological system, physical facilities, which constitute internal environment of an

organisation, affect motivation. Some machines are more interesting to work with than others or certain kinds of work may be boring to many persons; job-connected experience of a worker determines motivation.

- iii) **External or Exogenous Variables:** A worker's life outside the factory is also an important factor affecting his motivation or willingness to work inside the factory. Life at work and life outside the work are bound together. Troubles and joys of off- job life cannot be put aside when reporting for work, nor can the factory matters be dropped when returning home after work. A strong motivational role is also played by culture, customs and norms, images and attributes conferred by the society on particular jobs. An individual, for example, may find that his/her work commands a substantial degree of respect and social acceptance quite apart from holding a position in a particular organisation, and so s/he may be more willing or motivated to perform such a work.

Characteristics of Motivation

Some important characteristics of motivation which follow from the discussion of its determinants are:

- i) **Individuals differ in their motivation:** There is no single economic drive which determines behaviour. As the desires and goals of individuals differ, so do their motivations; one may do a job because it is remunerative, another may do it because it gives a sense of achievement, or enables him/her to serve a cause which is dear to him/her.
- ii) **Motivation is highly situational:** A person may work very well in one organisation and poorly in another in the same position or type of the job. The performance may vary with working conditions and type of supervision.
- iii) **Motivation change:** Motivation of each individual changes from time to time even if he/she may continue to behave in the same way. For example, a temporary worker may produce more in the beginning to become permanent. After being made permanent, he/she may continue to produce more to gain promotion and so on.
- iv) **Motivation is expressed differently:** Needs and the way in which they are translated into action may vary considerably from one individual to another. Different persons may also react differently to successful or unsuccessful fulfillment of their needs. One may feel frustrated if his/her need has not been met, but the other may be motivated by his/her failure and redouble his/her effort to get his/her need met (say, by writing and publishing additional scholarly articles or books). Again one individual with strong security need may avoid accepting responsibility for fear of failure and dismissal and the other with a similar need may seek out responsibility for fear of being fired for low performance.
- v) **Motivation is complex:** It is difficult to explain and predict the behaviour of workers. Use of one motivational device may not produce the desired result if it brings an opposing motive into play. In a factory when a blue-green device was introduced to reduce eye strain, the output of male workers increased while that of female workers decreased. It was found that the

latter disliked this change as the new type of light falling on them made them look simply ghastly in appearance.

7.4 MOTIVATION AND MORALE

These two expressions are not synonymous or interchangeable. But the fact remains that a motivated group of workers generally has a high degree of morale. Morale is a composite attitude of various individuals employed by a company. It is generated by the group and may be considered as a by-product of the group. It is not an average of individual attitudes. Morale has been defined in a number of ways. It can be seen as “an attitude of satisfaction, with a desire to continue in, and willingness to strive for, the goals of a particular group or organisation”. It has also been defined as “the possession of feeling of being accepted by and the belonging to a group of employees through adherence to a common goal and confidence in the desirability of these goals”. Put simply, morale is a group concept, while motivation is largely an individual concept. Morale is the summation of feeling of employees as a group towards various aspects of their work job, the company, working conditions, fellow workers, supervisors and so on. If the attitude of employees towards all these aspects is more positive than negative, the morale of the group can be said to be high, otherwise it is low.

Studies in India show that high morale among workers may not be an indication of high productivity. Higher morale of union members may enable them to continue to strike and fight out the issue.

Important components and determinants of morale are (a) a feeling of togetherness, (b) need for a clear goal or objective to be achieved, (c) expectation of success towards the attainment of the goal, (d) feeling of each member within the group that s/he has a meaningful task to perform for achieving the goal and that s/he also matters whatever may be the job assigned to her/him, and (e) supportive and stimulative leadership. All these determinants of morale are equivalent to that of job satisfaction which is a precursor of morale. However, the two differ as the term job satisfaction is used for individual and morale for groups.

An enlightened management should be conscious of the need for assessing the morale of its employees by opinion polls or attitude surveys from time to time. Low morale can be caused by factors beyond the control of the organisation. However, workers' morale can be boosted up by (a) better methods of working in which workers or their representatives may have a bigger say, (b) utilization of incentive schemes with the widest possible coverage, and (c) consultative and participative style of management.

What Demotivates or Demoralises the Employees?

There are some management practices which affect the morale and motivation or willingness of employees to give their best or work in the desired manner. Some of these practices are:

- a) Under assignment: If a skilled man is assigned an unskilled or routine job, it may cause frustration or job dissatisfaction and thus demotivation.

- b) Over assignment: If a good worker is overloaded to the point where s/he feels that s/he is being exploited, this may make her/him lose interest in work. In big organisations, it is a rather common practice to overload good workers as others cannot be trusted or depended upon.
- c) Buckmastership: Superiors or leaders avoiding hard work themselves and passing on the same to their subordinates, and then finding fault with them may erode employee motivation.
- d) Coercive types of control or supervision which may give a worker a feeling that s/he is not being trusted may also demotivate her/him or erode her/his interest in the work. Some control no doubt is essential but if it is too coercive resulting in frequent warnings or punishments, or withdrawal of facilities to chasten the employee, morale and motivation of the employee are bound to go down.
- e) Manipulative behaviour of the management which may take the form of divide and rule policy or tactics, making promises which are not fulfilled, encouraging groupism and appealing to the patriotic sense in times of national crisis, may also have a demotivating effect. When employees perceive such behaviour, they lose interest in work.

7.5 MOTIVATING EMPLOYEES IN ACTUAL PRACTICE

We now know that motivation has something to do with our way of life and thinking. Since there is a wide spectrum of human nature, there is no single magic wand to motivate employees as their needs and priorities of satisfaction differ. What may motivate one may not necessarily motivate the other. However, the employer should find out the right way that could make workers more productive. Since an employee has a lot of untapped energy, s/he would be ready to work and contribute the most if trained properly and treated fairly. In managing an organisation, some of the important factors which could improve motivation and morale of its employees are as follows:

- i) **Devising a well-defined humanistic personnel policy**, wherein the workforce is regarded as the valuable asset of the organisation, and sufficient care is taken to maintain and develop it, not only to attain organisational objectives but also to satisfy the normal aspirations of employees.
- ii) **A long-term employment policy projecting image of fairness** in recruitment and selection, placement of the right person to the right job, sound and fair promotion and transfer policies, well-planned need-based training and development programmes for grooming employees for higher job or building their career in the organisation, and suitable workforce planning.
- iii) **Fair wages and salary administration** ensuring equitable wage structure free from internal and external inequalities.
- iv) **Rewarding good performance adequately** at the earliest and also giving it deserving publicity.

- v) **A constructive and objective system of performance appraisal and merit rating** of employees aimed at servicing and improving them and not punishing them.
- vi) **Prompt handling of workers' grievances** by having a short time-bound procedure well-known to employees. In handling grievances, the attitude of persons managing grievances should be cooperative and positive and not negative, and the worker should have the feeling that s/he will be properly heard and justice will be done.
- vii) In handling disciplinary cases, the **management should not only be fair but also seem to be fair**. Disciplinary procedure should conform to the principles of natural justice. A corrective and not punitive approach in this respect may be more motivating.
- viii) **Participative and consultative style of management and supervision and increasing autonomy** in work may create necessary conditions for motivating workers to give their best.
- ix) **Job enrichment and enlargement**, or making the job more challenging are also essential for motivating the workers to give their best, as these will not only reduce job boredom and frustration, but also increase job satisfaction, and satisfy the esteem or ego and self-actualisation needs of employees, which are perpetual motivators.
- x) **Self-motivation by top management**, senior and middle managers and supervisors is essential if the persons working under them are to be motivated. The dictum "before you motivate others, you must first motivate yourself" should not be lost sight of. Seniors are expected to provide their juniors effective leadership and set an example of dedication and superior skill.

Specific Actions to Motivate Others

Managerial action, in general, can take four forms:

- Provide more of the valued rewards to the person.
- Change the values of the person towards the rewards, which are available.
- Improve the person's perception of the behaviour-reward linkage.
- Improve the reality of the behaviour-reward linkage.

The first two of these deal with actions which affect the goals which people value as outcome for their work; the latter two deal with their expectation of whether the paths available to them will lead to those rewards. Let us see how each of the three forms of influence may be used to achieve one or more of these four forms of action.

With respect to individual motivation, and in the context of the path-goal theory, managerial action which constitutes indirect influence is aimed at arranging the appropriate strategies, structures and policies to encourage and support motivated people to achieve organisational goals. This includes, for example, establishing incentive and reward system which will be valued by

employees. Indirect influence also includes selecting and employing people who have necessary skills and who value the kinds of rewards available in the organisation. Finally, indirect influence includes developing in oneself and others the managerial skills, particularly, the management style or pattern of behaviour in dealing with subordinates, which will have the effect of creating higher motivation.

You may recall that semi-direct influence is exercised when a manager acts to affect an individual through his or her social relationships at work. The emergent group has a strong effect on what its members value and what their expectations are with respect to the outcomes from behaviour. The group reward may serve as a highly visible symbol of the need for intra-company cooperation as well.

Direct influence on the individual involves communication and the personal, face-to-face relationship. A manager who attempts to increase the level of motivation through direct influence is typically trying to do the second and third actions mentioned above with respect to that person's value and expectations. Thus, the manager may work overtime to convince an employee to value more highly the rewards already existing and available in the organisation. This may be particularly difficult in times of major social change. The other form of action for direct influence is to improve the employee's perception of the linkage between behaviour and reward. This might involve, for example, personal conversations about what can result from certain levels of performance, such as promotion, bonus, or greater responsibility.

As important as what to do to motivate others is the question of how to do it. We turn now to a closer look at a manager's behaviour required to motivate others. To do this, we discuss *management style and leadership*.

Management Style and Leadership

In working relationships with others, and particularly in direct influence in motivating others, a manager exhibits one or more characteristic styles of behaviour. We may define management style as the pattern of a manager's behaviour in working relationships with others over time. This definition is relatively loose being more a concept than a precise variable. In order to be more precise, we need to set up one or more categories of behaviour characteristics where employees for one reason or another see their work only as a means of economic rewards. A second style is a supportive, people-oriented, humanistic style, which may be appropriate for employees who value social rewards. A third is a participative, mutual goal-setting style in which the manager works with subordinates who value autonomy and are rewarded by self-fulfillment. In a way, then, we say that a manager who holds one of the three basic sets of assumptions about what motivates others should exhibit a style which is consistent with those assumptions in order to provide the appropriate means to exercise direct influence. In other words, managers need to understand what rewards subordinates value, and behave in a pattern which will fit with that understanding as one part of providing a consistent environment for the employee.

The manager who believes, as a part of his or her perspective, that people are complex, is going above and beyond the three operational sets of assumptions

about valued rewards. The “complex person” assumptions imply that a manager will have no fixed beliefs about what motivates people in general or what style to employ in all situations. Rather, the manager will attempt to understand the particular subordinates, the particular situation, and ideally, select a style to fit the situation. Thus, they recognize that people are complex and that a diagnosis with a goal as a path-goal theory must be performed before employing a style. The manager cannot have one particular style for all situations. Rather, the manager must be able to choose an appropriate style for a situation and then change that style, if necessary. One may call this approach a “contingent” management style, but it is important to note that it refers to the process of diagnosis and choice of managerial behaviour rather than to the pattern of behaviour itself.

7.6 MOTIVES AND MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOUR

As a manager, we may have asked: What motivates managers to become successful in a large organisation? Among other things, they need to make an impact to be strong and to influence the behaviour of others for the organisational good. What separates good managers from poor managers is the “need for power”. However, it should neither be dictatorial, nor power for personal goals. It is not crude power, or power used impulsively. It can be referred to as altruistic power, meaning the power to influence people for the good of the organisation for which they work. It may also be called socialized power, meaning power which is tempered by a large dose of self-control and perspective. When a large number of executives are grouped according to their success in a running large, complex corporation, the profile of the effective manager looks like this:

The top managers of a company must possess a high concern for influencing people and commensurate authority. However, this need must be disciplined and controlled so that it is directed towards the benefit of an institution as a whole and not toward the manager's personal benefits. Moreover, the top manager's need for power ought to be greater than her/his need for being liked by people.

A good manager is not primarily motivated by the need for affiliation. The affiliation need refers to the desire to be liked and accepted by other people. People with strong affiliation need not necessarily do well in management positions. To maintain a high morale and productive environment, policies must be applied universally and consistently. A manager concerned with developing friendly relationships may make too many “exceptions to the rule” for certain subordinates, thereby upsetting these subordinates who do not receive special treatment. A manager motivated by the affiliation need may create poor teamwork and low morale. This, of course, would be inadvertent; as such an individual would not purposefully do anything to upset the relationships in the work group. It would occur most likely because of the failure of the manager to focus on the task to be accomplished.

The need for achievement is not extreme among effective managers. The need for achievement means a desire to do things better. Entrepreneurs, for example, are high in the need to achieve. This is understandable since people high in this need try to do things better themselves and want constant feedback on

their performance to see how well they are working. While good managers may be high in the need to achieve, it is usually not greatly out of balance when compared to the power and affiliation motives. A manager with an usually high need to achieve would in all probability be characterized by the inability to delegate authority. But good managers get things done with and through other people. They are, therefore, required invariably to delegate authority. The manager must get others to do things through influence or through persuasion. By definition, then, one aspect of a manager's job is to help others perform their jobs better, rather than trying to better perform the many short-term projects alone. A mature, self-controlled need for power will help create a good manager who helps subordinates, feels strong and responsible, rewards them properly for good performance and sees that things are organized in such a way that subordinates feel they know what they should be doing. Above all, managers should foster among others a strong sense of team spirit, of pride in working as part of a particular team. If a manager creates and encourages this spirit, her/his subordinate(s) certainly should perform better.

The actions of managers can be measured along two dimensions – a concern for people and a concern for productive output. A strong power need combined with a weak need for affiliation does not conflict with being people-oriented or democratic toward subordinates. Power is a motive while being people-oriented is a behaviour or an action. Effective managers, in their effort to influence subordinates and get work done, express their strong power needs in democratic, people-oriented ways. Research on power in organisations indicates that the managers who were strong in power needs were also rated strong on the people-oriented supervisory style by their own subordinates.

7.7 SUMMARY

- Motivation is defined as a “process governing choices, made by persons or lower organisms, among alternatives forms of voluntary activity”. As such motivation is concerned with (1) the direction of behaviour, or what a person chooses to do when presented with a number of possible alternatives, (2) the amplitude, or strength of the effect once the choice is made and (3) the persistence of the behaviour, or how long the person continues with it. Choices behaviour refers to decisions directed toward occupational preference, choices, organisation choices, job attendance, self- training, creativity, spontaneity and job termination.
- Almost all workers are motivated to have a high level of self-esteem in the work situation. Often when a person is not in a work situation providing high self- esteem, the person will be “fighting back” – actively or passively like a slave – with all sorts of sly country measures. People do not want to be pushed around, misunderstood, unappreciated, mistreated, controlled or laughed at. All these things cause low self-esteem. The individual does not want to expect success to be active, to be respected to exercise self-control and to be self-starting.
- Factors within the job (intrinsic factors) are usually effective motivators and can help awaken the urge to accomplish and to be self-starting. Such factors include feelings of achievement, recognition and responsibility

among others. These feelings sometimes “surprise” workers and in so doing inspire and encourage high motivation

- Jobs not providing for intrinsic motivation are low in “cultivation” or stimulation. Some form of job redesign is suggested for this type of job.
- High task performance results when (1) employees are able to use their valued abilities and skills in becoming task competent, (2) employees perceive valued and equitable rewards to be linked to task performance, and (3) employees acknowledge a differential reward system based on performance within the organisation.
- The power motive is important to effective managers. This need is not for dictatorial power or crude impulsive power but rather socialized power and the power to influence people for the sake of the organisation. While some balance of motives is usually present within most individuals a high need for power seem to be critical to a person’s ability to function as a manager.
- Motivation is a complex problem in organisation because the needs, wants, and desires of each worker differ as each individual is unique in his/ her biological and psychological makeup and in his/her learning experiences. Motivation is either internal or external, depending on where the action is initiated.
- External motivation builds on internal motivation and depends on the motivational assumptions and techniques used by the manager.

7.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Study the case given below and answer the questions following them.

Case 1

The procedure manual of Naidu Enterprises stated that backorders should be filed numerically by the invoice number appearing on Naidu’s purchase order to its suppliers. But one morning Hariharan spent several hours refilling the backorders suppliers. When a customer called to check on an item that was backordered, it was time-consuming for Ram to locate the order that was written up after it had been determined that the item was not in stock. Consequently, the customer had no idea what the invoice number of its backorder was. Hariharan was proud of what he had done and wanted the opportunity to show off his system to the branch manager, John

Rowlings. After lunch that same day, Mr. Rowlings needed a backorder invoice to answer a question a customer had about his order. It was no problem for Ram to find the invoice since it was filed alphabetically under the name of the account. Mr. Rowlings told Joe that although the invoice had been easily located, his filing system for backorder invoices did not conform to company procedures and they would have to be refilled by invoice number before the branch’s semiannual inspection next week. Hariharan was depressed that he had to conform to company procedures even when they were inefficient. He spent the entire afternoon refilling the invoices by number, not caring that he didn’t get anything else done.

- a) Will Hariharan be motivated to try other methods of improving the efficiency of the job in the future? Explain.
2. Study the cases given below and answer the questions following them.

Case 2

Arun was the first repair manager to be hired at Chawla Supply Centre. He was a field repairman for another company before he took a position. In the past, the repair department had operated without a manager. The repairman, Nand Kishore and George Brown simply divided the work between themselves in whatever manner they wanted. There was always a backlog of work, but It was finished on time.

When Arun came, he decided to divide the work load into repairs for company and individual accounts and to assign certain types of repairs to each man. He had to check all repairs before they were returned to the customer, and he wanted all problems discussed with him before action was taken on them. He started holding meetings with the repairmen to discuss problems the section was having.

At first, meetings were held during working hours, then after work, and finally on Saturdays. During these meetings, the increasing number of problems were discussed, but no solutions were ever offered. In the meantime, the work load was getting greater and some of the work was not being finished on time. It seemed that Nand Kishore and George were spending most of their time getting Arun's approval on their work so they could have it shipped back to the customer. Arun then decided that the repair department should start working overtime.

- a) Discuss this case in terms of job satisfaction and job enrichment.
- b) Is anyone to blame for the increase in workload, or could it be just an increase in business?
- c) Do you believe that the repairmen should be motivated to increase their productivity because they now have their own manager?
- d) Discuss morale in terms of the relationship of satisfaction to productivity.
3. Explain how motivation plays an important role in organisations
4. Distinguish between Motivation and Morale.
5. What can organisations do to improve Motivation and Morale?

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Block

3

INTERPERSONAL AND GROUP PROCESSES

Unit 8

Group Dynamics and Team Building **149**

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BLOCK INTRODUCTION

This block will focus on the interpersonal and group processes in an organisation. Interpersonal processes are nothing but the interplay of cognitive, motivational and behavioural activities in social interactions. The first unit will cover the concept of group dynamics and elucidates the importance of teamwork. The second unit describes the types and levels of conflict. It also covers the negotiation strategies that organisations adapt to resolve the conflict. The last unit is on Job Stress, wherein the dynamics of job stress and mechanisms to cope with stress is discussed.



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UNIT 8 **GROUP DYNAMICS AND TEAM BUILDING**

Objectives

After studying this unit you will be able to:

- discuss the concept and nature of group;
- describe the stages of group development;
- explain the determinants of group productivity;
- discuss the nature and type of teams;
- elucidate effective team building; and
- discuss the problems affecting teamwork.

Structure

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 The Concept and Nature of Group
- 8.3 Stages of Group Development
- 8.4 Determinants of Group Productivity
- 8.5 Teams: Nature and Types
- 8.6 Effective Team Building
- 8.7 Problems Affecting Teamwork
- 8.8 Summary
- 8.9 Self-Assessment Questions
- 8.10 Further Readings/ References

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Think of the activities that can be carried out better as a group than as an individual. For example, shifting a piece of heavy furniture, planning a picnic or an event in an organisation, coming up with solution to certain crucial and complex problems. Though, it is possible that some of the activities can be carried out at individual level, but these activities can also be more effectively carried out when in group. While shifting a piece of heavy furniture, the task will be easier and will take less time when say four to five people are involved than when it is done by a single individual. while planning a picnic or event as well, when in group, there will be different perspectives and view points that will contribute to the planning process. While dealing with a crucial and complex problem as well, when in group a number of possible solutions will be identified and discussion can take place with regard how the problem can be solved adequately.

Thus, there could be a number of advantages while working a group, though there could be some limitations as well.

Similarly, in this context we can also discuss about teams. Teams can be differentiated from groups and this will also be focus on in the present unit.

Teams could bring to our mind mainly sports related teams, like a cricket team or football team and so on. Though there are a number of teams in an organisational set up as well that work towards achieving different tasks in an organisation.

The focus of present unit is thus on group dynamics and team building.

8.2 THE CONCEPT AND NATURE OF GROUP

Each of us has been a part of a group at some point of time or other. And if even a lay person is asked to describe what a group is, he/ she will probably describe it as consisting of two or more persons. This in a way is correct description of what a group is but, a group is definitely more than this and can be described as two or more individual who are interacting with each other as well as interdependent. Further, these individuals are involved in achieving a common goal or an objective.

There are various definitions of group that can be stated as follows:

According to Farnham (2005, page 478) “a group is made up of persons (more than two, which is a dyad) who communicate regularly, share goals and interact with each other over time, so building up affective bonds”.

Johns (1996, page 232) defined group as “Two or more people interacting interdependently to achieve a common goal”

Group can also be defined as “two or more people with common interests, objectives, and continuing interaction” (Quick, Nelson and Khandelwal, 2013 page 320).

Hersey et. al (1998, page 362) explained that “a group is two or more individuals interacting in which the existence of all (the existence of the group as a group) is necessary for the needs of the individual group members to be satisfied”

One of the common elements in all the above definitions is that a group is considered as constituting two or more individuals. Though they also stress that there is/ are common objectives, interests and goals that the group wants to achieve and thus the members of the group have to work in tandem with each other and are also interdependent in order to effectively achieve the common goals set by the members of the group.

Groups are of extreme importance in an organisational set up mainly because the larger goals of the organisation are achieved by the various groups in an organisation. Singh, Nirmal (2003) has stated various reasons for group including the introduction of industrial democracy in workplace, where employees are encouraged to participate in decision making, that often takes place in group, the complex nature of task that requires more than one individual and their perspectives to carry them out effectively, certain tasks in organisations that cannot be performed at individual level and thus a group is required to carry

them out successfully, working in group brings out multiple perspectives and view points that can also contribute to the task at hand and creative ideas and solutions are also generated and individuals may feel more secured and supported in a group set up. Though, an individual's performance may get enhanced or facilitated

while in a group, his/ her performance can also get affected. besides there could be a number of issues that may interfere with smooth functioning of the group, that will be discussed in the present unit.

Groups in this context can be formal or informal. Formal groups are the groups that are created by the organisation in a conscious effort in order to promote achievement of the organisational goal and purpose. Thus there could be a group of employees who are working on a certain project in an organisation under a manager. Task forces and committees can be considered as types of formal groups. Task groups can be described as groups that are temporary in nature and are mainly established in order to carry out certain tasks (as the name suggests) and achieve the common purpose or goals assigned to them. Committees on the other hand are relatively more permanent and are involved in dealing with certain assignments that may not be part of the work group structures that are usual (Hersey et al, 1998).

Besides formal groups, an organisation may also have various informal groups, that are not deliberately created by an organisation but emerge as a result of employees in the organisation sharing certain common interests. Informal groups can be interest groups (example, employees coming together in demand for certain facilities), friendship group (members having similar views, preferences and opinions), recreational group (example, table tennis club or chess club) and so on. In an organisation, it is extremely important to focus on informal groups as they can in certain situations facilitate organisational functioning or can even interfere with it.

Activity 1

Define Group and give few examples.

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8.3 STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Any group whether formal or informal will go through stages of group development. There are a number of models available that discuss the stages of group development. In the present unit, the five stage model by Bruce Tuckman (Quick et al, 2013) will be discussed. The five stages that have been stated by this model are as follows:

- 1) **Forming:** This is the initial stage that is denoted by some agreement amongst the members though there might exist ambiguity and lack of clarity with regard to the purpose of the group as well as the role expected from the

members. The group at this stage requires necessary guidance and direction that they need to follow. The leader plays an important role here in bringing about clarity with regard to the purpose of the group and the role that each member is expected to play.

- 2) **Storming:** This stage is characterised by conflict, that the members may indulge in as there are power struggles between them, cliques and factions get established. Though during this stage there is some clarity in terms of purpose of the group, though certain uncertainties may continue to exist. During this stages each member in a way is assessed by the other in terms of trustworthiness, comfort and acceptance. The leader mainly plays a role in coaching the group members.
- 3) **Norming:** During this stage there is increased clarity in the roles and responsibility of the group members. There is also increased agreement and consensus amongst the members. The group at this stage focuses more on the decision making process and the task achievement is also highlighted. The leader at this stage mainly needs to play a role of a facilitator.
- 4) **Performing:** This stages is denoted by vision that us clear. There is also clarity with regard to the purpose of the group. The group focuses mainly on the achievement of the group goal and decision making. Any disagreements amongst the group members are also adequately resolves. the group in a way gains maturity that contributes to the effective performance of the group. The leader can play a role in delegation of work and overseeing the functioning of the group.
- 5) **Adjourning:** This is the fifth and the last stage of group development. The task is accomplished and thus the group can now adjourn and move on to other tasks. The group members may display a good feeling and sense of achievement as the group goal is achieved. The leader here plays an important role of recognising the contributions of the group members.

Activity 2

Describe Storming and Performing stages of group development with the help of examples.

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8.4 DETERMINANTS OF GROUP PRODUCTIVITY

As was discussed by us above, working in a group does to a greater extent enhances the overall achievement of the task or objective. But, it is also important to understand the determinants of group productivity, that is discussed in this section of the unit.

The significant determinants of group productivity are group size, group composition, group norms, group cohesiveness and group leadership (McAfee and Champagne, 1987). These determinants can have an impact on group productivity but can also influence employee productivity and job satisfaction. These are discussed in details as follows:

Group Size: Group size denotes the number of members in the group. This is one of the significant determinants of group productivity because there are both advantages and disadvantages of having a small or large group and there could be debate over what an ideal size of a group should be. There may not be an ideal size though and the size of the group will depend on a number of aspects including the nature of the work or functions to be carried out by the group and number of members the group leader will be able to effectively supervise, termed as span of control. The span of control will also be determined by various factors like the extent of subordinate training, the ability to delegate work to others as displayed by the supervisor, the rate at which change takes place in an organisation and the extent of personal contact that exists between the employees in an organisation (McAfee and Champagne, 1987). The impact that the size of the group has on the group performance or outcome will depend mainly on the two forces that are opposite and on the balance between these two forces. As the group size increases, there is also an increase in the resources that can enhance the accomplishment of the task. However, as the group size increases, issues related to coordination and organisation may crop in. A larger group as such could be more difficult to organise and manage and this can have an impact on the group performance and management. Thus it is important to have an optimal group size that will not only make available adequate resources but also allows effective coordination and organisation. The group leader does play an important role here and a lot will also depend on the nature of the task and goal to be achieved.

Group Composition: This is the next aspect that can have an impact on the group productivity. This mainly discusses the similarity or dissimilarity amongst the group members in terms of the demographic factors like age, gender, personal traits, background of the members and so on (McAfee and Champagne, 1987). Though there is no concrete answer as such to whether a group having members with similar background will perform better or members with dissimilar background will perform better, composition of the group, keeping in mind the nature of the task (whether simple or complex), can play an important role. A simpler task may require a group that is more homogeneous whereas, with regard to complex tasks, a heterogeneous group will bring in more diverse views and opinions and thus can be beneficial. Further, with regard to the personal traits of the members in the group, certain traits like being stable and responsible, dependable, being self-reliant can be considered as significant amongst the members for them to perform in tandem with each other (McAfee and Champagne, 1987).

FIRO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation) theory can also be discussed in this context, that mainly focuses on how individuals adjust or orient themselves to others. The theory also emphasises the significance of compatible needs. The theory highlights the three compatible needs, namely, inclusion (need to maintain interaction with others that is satisfactory), control

(need to influence others and direct their behaviour) and affection (need for closeness with others). Thus the groups that have compatible needs amongst their members will perform better when compared to groups that do not have compatible needs amongst their members.

Group Norms: This is yet another aspect that can have an impact on the group productivity. Norms can be described in simple terms as standards of behaviour that the group members are expected to adhere to in the group and these norms are common to all the group members and develop as a result of gradual process incongruence with the development of the group. These norms may or may not be written and could also be implicit or explicit. Norms could be related to performance, teamwork, communication amongst the members, interpersonal relationship, honesty, training and development, change, innovation, leadership and so on.

Guirdham, (1995) stated four norms that are found in a group (as cited in Fincham and Rhodes, 1999 page 193), they are fairness, reciprocity, reasonableness and role expectation, there are discussed as follows:

- 1) **Fairness:** There has to be fairness and equitability in the contributions of the group members towards group activity.
- 2) **Reciprocity:** Group members need to display reciprocity, that is if one of the group members is helpful towards another then this group members needs to reciprocate.
- 3) **Reasonableness:** The behaviour of the group members needs to be rational and reasonable and they should not exploit each other in any way.
- 4) **Role expectation:** This mainly denotes the expectation with regard to role that the groups members are expected to play or carryout.

Group norms play a significant role as the central values of the group are expressed through the norms and they also regulate the behaviour of the group members, thus enhancing group functioning. Group norms are also a reflection of the nature of the group. Norms thus serve as guiding principles that determine the group members behaviour and also help in dealing with any deviant behaviour.

Groups norms are most often accepted by the large number of group members and focus more on group behaviour than the feeling and thoughts of the members. Norms cover the significant aspects of a groups and play an important role in management of the group. Any deviation from the group norms is dealt with by varying degrees of tolerance and this will also depend on the status of the individual in the group as well as the norm that was violated. Noncompliance and compliance of the group norms often meets with punishment and reward respectively. It is also important to note that norms are as such difficult to change or modify.

Thus, group norms are relevant and play a significant role in enhancing group productivity.

Group Cohesiveness: This is yet another aspect that is significant in the context of group productivity. Cohesion can be described as “the degree to

which the members of the group are attracted to the group and to one another” (Nahavandi, Denhardt, Denhardt and Aristigueta, 2015). Group cohesiveness is often termed as the cement that binds the group members together. Festinger, Schachter and Back (1950, page 164) defined group cohesion as “the total field of forces causing members to remain in the group”.

Various factors like similarity between the group members, openness displayed by them, trust and so on can have an impact on group cohesion. Cohesiveness of the group is also determined by the needs of the group members, the nature and type of group activities, the past experience of the group mainly in terms of failures and success and also the incentive properties related to the group membership. A group that displays high cohesiveness is more likely to work effectively and the interaction and coordination between the members is also enhanced. High cohesiveness is also linked with high satisfaction, morale and motivation. It also leads to increased achievement of group goals, better communication, increased loyalty and reduction in absenteeism and turnover.

Group leadership: Besides the above factors, the group leadership will also play an important role in group productivity. A leader plays an important role in not only directing the group activities towards the group goal but also has significant influence on the group members and their behaviour. The leadership style to be adopted will also depend on the nature of the group and task. In an organisational set up the focus should also be on leaders of informal groups besides the leaders of formal group.

Activity 3

1) Discuss group size as a determinant of group productivity.

2) What are group norms?

3) Explain group cohesiveness.

8.5 TEAMS: NATURE AND TYPES

Besides groups, the term team also needs to be discussed. Teams can be explained in terms of groups that more matured and have a interdependence amongst the members that is higher in degree. The team also works in the direction of achieving the team goals. Some common examples of teams as we see around are sports team, project teams at work place and so on. Moorhead and Griffin (2010) described team as a small group of individuals who possess complementary skills and have a common purpose, goals and approach or strategy for which they can be held accountable as a team.

As can be seen from the above explanations of team, teams are more matured compared to groups and also display a higher interdependence amongst the team members.

Most often the term team is used interchangeable though there are differences between the two. Groups are often larger in size when compared to teams. Groups as was discussed previously include two or more members who interact with each other. On the other hand, teams are groups that are more mature in nature. Group members are comparatively less interdependent when compared to team members. The team members also display a higher sense of common purpose when compared to group members. Besides the accountability amongst the team members is also higher when compared to group members.

There are various types of teams as well. These are discussed as follows:

- 1) **Work teams:** There are the teams that are more permanent. For example a marketing team may work together on daily basis.
- 2) **Cross functional teams:** These teams constitute of members from different departments/ divisions of an organisation and are often from same hierarchical level. For example, there could be team of managers from different departments in an organisation or in a university there could be a team of faculty members from different departments/ discipline that may come together for certain activity and to achieve a common goal.
- 3) **Top management teams:** These are comparatively smaller teams that are at the higher level of management in an organisation. Members of such teams have a higher degree of individuality and interdependence, also because each member is a leader and may possess expertise in his/ her own area of work.
- 4) **Process-improvement teams:** Such teams involve individuals who are involved in interaction with each other and work together with a purpose to improve the work processes.
- 5) **Project teams:** These teams are in a way similar to the cross functional teams, but the members from the different departments/ division may not be involved all at the same time but may play a more significant role at certain stage. For example, a project team that is involved in working on launch of a new product, will have its marketing team member or manager being more active at certain stage and member from sales department will more actively involved at some other stage.

6. **Self-managed teams:** Such teams are denoted by higher degree of freedom and may also display a higher degree of morale. As the name suggests these teams are self managed and thus without a proper leader, they may sometimes be deprived of suitable guidance.
- 7) **Virtual teams:** As the name suggests, the team members of such a team are not physically present in one place but could be in different locations. Such teams function with the help of information technology and interact with the help of computers and telecommunications. The team thus may not actually meet face to face. Though there are a number of advantages to such a team as time, money and effort to bring the members at a single location is saved, the team members may lack trust, may display weak communication and may also have lesser accountability.
8. **Quality circles:** Such teams can be denoted by smaller number of members who involve in work that is similar in nature. The leadership of such a team is on rotation basis, thus each member can get an opportunity of leading the team. Such teams are involved in quality improvement and enhancing effectiveness in an organisation. The level of participation and involvement of members in such teams is also very high throughout the stages of goal achievement. Such team are most often used to enhance the quality of products, improve occupational safety, increase productivity, enhance communication and relationship between the employees and also create an environment that is positive.

Teams are involved in a number of activities that may range from advising, innovating, promoting, developing, organising, producing, inspecting maintaining and linking. Team could be involved in providing advice to the management, for example. The team here may be constituted so as to identify and understand an issue or a problem and provide suitable advice. With regard to the innovating function of a team, the team members could be involved in brainstorming and systematic discussion to come up with innovative ideas and strategies. The team could also be involved in promoting, that is, it could be involved in certain promotional activities that could be promotion of a product or a strategy and so on. The activity related to developing involved developing a new product or even developing a strategy (for example, a strategy to reduce absenteeism in an organisation). The next activity of a team is related to organising. Teams could be involved in organising events and programmes in an organisation. A team may also be involved in production related activities (producing). Yet another activity that a team can carry out is that of inspecting, where the team is involved in carrying out inspection, evaluation and analysis of say an issue or an accident or certain employee welfare programme. Maintaining is yet another activity that a team could be involved in that includes team is constituted in order to maintain a positive environment in an organisation or to maintain high morale and motivation amongst the employees. Last, but not the team a team also plays a role in linking related activities where a team may work towards linking different groups in an organisation, thus bridging the gap between varied groups in an organisational set up, in order to enhance communication and interpersonal relationship.

Teams play a significant role in an organisational setup given the complex nature of both the work activity and the problems and issues that crop up at work place

due to various reasons ranging from globalisation, diversity to development in technology. Thus, to effectively carry out work in an organisational set up, it is important to set up teams. Though, due care needs to be taken while building the teams together. Which brings us to the next relevant sub topic in this context, that is team building. Team building has been described in detail in the next section of this unit.

Activity 4

1) What is a team?

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2) Differentiate between teams and groups.

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3) Discuss any two types of team.

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8.6 EFFECTIVE TEAM BUILDING

Team building in simple terms can be described as activities that mainly involve building and improving team performance. Building effective teams in an organisation is very crucial in order to ensure that the goals for which the team is being constituted are achieved. Team building can be defined as “an intervention designed to improve the effectiveness of a work group (Quick et al, 2015, pg 654).

Building effective teams is one of the most significant challenges that may be faced by managers and management in an organisation and some of the aspects that need to be considered are discussed as follows:

- 1) **Team size:** As we discussed about the group size, it is also important to discuss about team size. A team size could ideally be between 4 and 12 as a larger team could be difficult to coordinate and manage and could give rise to issues like conflict and social loafing. Further, managing communication in larger teams also could be difficult. Having smaller teams, that is, less than four members may not serve the purpose as the diversity of opinions and

view points is reduced. Thus, based on the purpose and nature of the work activity the team size can be determined.

2) **Composition of the team:** Besides the team size, the composition of team is also important. While building a team, keeping in mind the nature of the work activity and the goal, decision can be taken with regard to whether the team needs to be homogeneous (members having similar background and skills) or heterogeneous (members with diverse background and skills) in nature.

- **Goals need to be specific and clear:** The team needs to be provided with goals that are clear and specific. Ambiguous goals could have a negative impact on the functioning and performance of the team. Goals thus need to be SMART, that is, they need to be Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Reasonable and need to be achieved within a timeframe.
- **Team cohesiveness:** As we discussed about group cohesiveness, team cohesiveness is also relevant. Management need to focus on enhancing team cohesiveness so as to ensure effective team functioning. Thus team members also need to be selected based on whether they will be willing and able to work in tandem with each other towards achieving the team goal. High team cohesiveness can have a positive impact on the functioning and productivity of the team members and can also lead to reduction in any conflict amongst the members.
- **Management of diversity:** This is also an important aspect of building effective teams. Diversity can be of great advantage as it brings in varied perspectives and opinions. However, if not managed effectively it could lead to conflicts. Thus while building teams, the management needs to ensure that there is diversity in the team but at the same time the team members should be encouraged to respect and accept each other and work together to achieve the team goal.
- **Promoting trust amongst the team members:** To build effective teams, trust needs to be cultivated and promoted amongst the members. Trust can be defined as “each member’s faith in others’ intentions and behaviours” (Nanhavandi, Denhardt, Denhardt and Aristigueta, 2015 page 364). Development of trust amongst team members is relevant for the team to function adequately and is also important for its effective coordination, to promote collaboration and cooperation amongst the members.
- **Leadership:** This is one of the most important aspects of building teams. Selection of a leader needs to be carried out adequately and on the basis or nature of the team and based on task and purpose allotted to the team. Leadership could also be on rotation basis, where each member of the team gets an opportunity to lead the team. In either case, the leader plays an important role in keeping the team together and directing its activities towards achieving the team goals. A team leader needs to have a clear idea about the goals of the team as well as the overall and larger goal of the organisation. He/ she also needs to be aware about skills and roles expected of each team member and he/ she

also needs to play an adequate role in motivating, guiding, supporting, encouraging and providing suitable feedback to the team members.

- **Training:** While building a team, the skills and knowledge of the team members need to be kept in mind. And based on the task allotted, the team members need to be provided with adequate training. Training provided could be related to technical skills or behavioural skills related to communication, team work, interpersonal relationship and so on. Thus, based on the demand of the task allotted to the team and the team goal, suitable training programmes can be carried out for the team members.
- **Management of conflict:** Management of conflict is an important aspect of team building and the management in an organisation as well as the team leader need to work in this direction. Though discussion is relevant while carrying out team activities and there could also be disagreement due to varied perspectives and opinions amongst the team members, any conflict needs to be managed effectively so that it does not interfere with the team functioning and performance.

Activity 5: In your organization you are in charge of organising an employee get together of half day. There will be thirty employees attending the event. In this regard, as an incharge (and leader of the team), you need to make varied arrangements like food and refreshment, finance and budgeting, entertainment, games and activities etc. You also need to constitute a team in this regard of around five people who will help you with various activities. In this context answer the following:

- What aspects/ factors will you keep in mind while you are constituting your team?
- What skills you will expect them to have?
- What would be the type of your team?
- What roles/ activity will you assign to each member of your team?

8.7 PROBLEMS AFFECTING TEAMWORK

When a number of individuals come together to carry out a common activity to achieve a common goal/ purpose, a number of problems could crop up. Varied individuals will bring varied perspectives and opinions that may sometimes clash and there could be disagreement. There could also be lack of coordination and communication gap between the team members. Thus there could be numerous problems that may affect effective functioning of a team. It is important that these problems are identified and deal with adequately to avoid any interference with the effective functioning of the team. Some of the problems that can affect teamwork are discussed as follows:

- 1) **Changes in the team composition:** Any changes, especially frequent changes, in the composition of the team, like additions, transfers and change in members of the team can interfere with the functioning of the

team, especially because the rapport and the interpersonal relationship that the team members have amongst them will be disintegrated. The team cohesiveness may also get affected which in turn can have a negative impact on team functioning and productivity, thus affecting the achievement of team goals.

- 2) **Interpersonal relationship between team member:** Issues can also arise due to inadequate interpersonal relationship between the team members. Any conflict between the team members can have an impact on the functioning of the the team in the direction of goal attainment.
- 3) **Communication related issues:** There could also be problems related to communication. There could be miscommunications or communication gaps between the team members that can affect the interpersonal relationship between the team members.
- 4) **Social loafing:** Social loafing can be defined as “ the failure of a group member to contribute personal time, effort, thoughts or other resources to the group” (Quick et al, 2015, pg 771). Social loafing on part of some members in the team can have an impact on both the morale of the team as well as team performance.
- 5) **Ineffective leadership:** Leader play most important role in team work and if the leadership is not effective or if the leader does not have a clear idea about the team goal or about the role to be played by each member of the team then the team work could get affected. The leader is also responsible for effective coordination, collaboration and cooperation amongst the team members and he/ she is not able to perform these functions effectively the teamwork may get affected.
- 6) **Role ambiguity:** Besides clarity in goals, the team members also need to have a clear idea about the roles that they are expected to play, as lack of clarity will again interfere with the achievement of team goal.
- 7) **Lack of trust between the members:** For team members to function together effectively, they need trust each other. It is important that for early stages of team development the team members start developing trust and rapport with each other. Lack of trust amongst the members can negatively influence the interpersonal relationship and sharing of ideas, opinions, information and knowledge between the team members.
- 8) **Domination by one or more members:** It may so happen that in a team one or more members may dominate the discussion, decision making and problem solving process. This needs to be avoided and the leader needs to ensure that each and every member is provided with scope to put across his/ her view points and contribute to the teamwork.
- 9) **Lack of motivation and morale:** If the team members are low on morale and motivation, they may not adequately work in the direction of achieving the team goal. Thus dues care needs to be taken to ensure that the team members are duly motivated that their morale is boosted with the help of reinforcements, encouragements, feedback and so on.

- 10) Disagreements amongst team members over team activities and goals:**
Any disagreement amongst team members with reference to the team activities and goals should be avoided or settled at the earliest (if any arise). This is crucial for effective functioning of the team.

Awareness about above problems amongst team leaders, management and even human resource managers is very important so as to identify them and deal with them effectively. Various strategies could be applied in order to ensure that the team performs effectively.

- 1) One way in which some of the problems affecting teamwork could be avoided by ensuring that the size of the team is adequate so that there is adequate and effective coordination, communication, collaboration and cooperation amongst the team members.
- 2) The focus could also be on the skills of the team members. Three main skills are relevant in this context, technical competence, problems solving and interpersonal skills. Team members can be selected based on these skills and further they can also be given training in this regard.
- 3) Open communication should be encouraged between the team members and also between the leader and the team members.
- 4) Clarity needs to be maintained with regard to goals and activities that the team needs to carry out.
- 5) As far as possible shared leadership should be encouraged amongst the team members.
- 6) The focus should also be on the behavioural aspect of the team members. Team members need to be encouraged to respect each other and should also be helped to develop skills like effective listening, positive attitude and so on. They should also be encouraged to express their opinions but not hurt feelings of their team members, support each other, not involve in blame games and focus on the problems and their solutions.
- 7) As far as possible team members need to be encouraged to take decisions based on consensus.
- 8) The organisation and the management also needs to ensure that there is a supportive environment for the team to function effectively.
- 9) The team members also need to develop or should be provided training in order to manage stress and time effectively. Psychologically healthy team members will be able to function to their fullest and will contribute better to the functioning of the team and attainment of team goals.
- 10) Regular training needs to be provided to the team members with regard to behaviour skills, technical skills and knowledge so that they are updated and carry out their work effectively. They should also be trained with regard to any technological developments in their field so that they can use the technology adequately for their work and team related activities.

Activity 6

Group Dynamics and Team Building

- 1) Discuss any two problems that can affect teamwork.

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- 2) Keeping in mind any one of the problems that can affect teamwork (discussed above), come up with a strategy about how you will deal with the problem so as to ensure effective functioning of a team.

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8.8 SUMMARY

In the present unit we mainly discussed about group dynamics and team building. Groups are of extreme importance in an organisational set up mainly because the larger goals of the organisation are achieved by the various groups in an organisation. Group in simple terms can be described as two or more individuals sharing a common goal, who are interdependent and are in interaction with each other. We also discussed about various stages of group development namely, forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning. Further, various determinants of group productivity were also discussed. The chapter then moved on to the team and its nature and types. Teams can be explained in terms of groups that more matured and have a interdependence amongst the members that is higher in degree. The team also works in the direction of achieving the team goals. Most often the term team is used interchangeable though there are differences between the two. Various types of teams were also discussed. The unit further focused on effective team building and various aspects related to building effective teams were discussed. In the last section of the unit various problems affecting teamwork were discussed. besides possible strategies to deal effectively with such problems were also highlighted.

8.9 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the nature of group and describe stages of group development.
- 2) Explain the various determinants of group productivity.
- 3) Define teams and describe various types of teams.
- 4) Explain the aspects of effective team building.
- 5) Describe various problems affecting team work.

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UNIT 9 CONFLICT AND NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES

Objectives

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Define conflict;
- Identify different types and levels of conflict;
- Outline sources of conflict;
- Specify the effects of conflict;
- Outline the conflict process;
- Discuss different frameworks of conflict management;
- Facilitate conflict prevention in your organization;
- Explain Negotiation and how does it take place; and
- Discuss various types of bargaining strategies are in the market and how individual differences, ethics and situational factors influences negotiation.

Structure

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Defining Conflict
- 9.3 Conflict: Types and Levels
- 9.4 Sources of conflict
- 9.5 Effects of Conflict
- 9.6 Conflict Process
- 9.7 Conflict Management
- 9.8 Conflict Prevention
- 9.9 Negotiation
- 9.10 The process of negotiation
- 9.11 Types of Bargaining Strategies
- 9.12 Individual Differences in Negotiation Effectiveness
- 9.13 Situational Factor of negotiation
- 9.14 Ethics and Negotiation
- 9.15 Third Party negotiations

- 9.16 The Gandhian Approach to conflict resolution and integration
- 9.17 Avoiding common mistakes in negotiation
- 9.18 Summary
- 9.19 Self-Assessment Questions
- 9.20 Further Readings/ References

9.1 INTRODUCTION

In spite of your best efforts, you may encounter situations of conflict in the course of your work. How will you resolve them? In fact, exposure to conflicting situations and seeking their resolution is an on-going process in life; one conflict follows another. Recall the time when as a small child, you had to choose between a tricycle and a cricket set or, say, a set of dolls and a new frock for a birthday present. That could probably be your first exposure to a conflicting situation. As an adolescent, the conflicting career options – computer scientist, civil servant, professional manager – may have presented themselves for you to choose from. Moreover, your choice may not have matched that of your parents, who wanted you to be a lawyer, a doctor or a Chartered Accountant. Thus you faced a conflict not only at an **intrapersonal** level, in terms of the various choices confronting you, but also at an **interpersonal** level – your choice versus your parent's choice of a career for you.

As a working professional, you may be facing such situations every day with your colleagues, customers or your superiors. Conflict may not be confined at the individual level; it may manifest itself more and more in the organisation. Employees have become more vociferous in their demands for a better deal. Various departments in an organisation face a situation full of conflicts due to reasons such as diversity of goals, scarcity of resources or task inter-dependence. Of course, these are simplistic examples of a conflict. However, each succeeding conflict over the years has been increasingly complicated.

In this unit, we discuss various aspects of conflict management. We shall confine ourselves to managing contradictions in business and profession. You would appreciate that a lot of interest has been generated in conflict management and resolution in recent times.

Management today is faced with the awesome responsibility of ensuring optimum levels of growth and productivity in an environment that is full of conflicting situations. A recent survey suggests that the modern manager spends over 20% of time handling one form of conflict or the other. Top and middle level managers need to appreciate the importance of conflict management skills. We hope that the knowledge you gain in this Unit will equip you better to manage conflicting situations more deftly at your workplace. The scope of conflict resolution can be far and wide. We shall focus on interpersonal, group, inter-group, and organisational conflicts in this unit. To set the tone of the unit we would like to quote Kelly, a renowned management expert: "Perfect organisational health is not freedom from conflict. On the contrary, if properly handled, conflicts can lead to be more effective and appreciate adjustments."

9.2 DEFINING CONFLICT

Conflict is a natural disagreement amongst individuals or groups that differ in attitudes, beliefs, values or needs. It has both positive and negative sides.

Conflict may be needed at times; it helps to raise and address problems, helps people to “Be Real” and learn how to recognize and benefit from being different. But in general, conflict is perceived as a problem which hampers productivity, lowers morale, causes more and continued conflict resulting into inappropriate behaviour. Basically, there are some common managerial actions which result into workplace conflicts like poor communication, insufficient resources, interpersonal relationship, leadership problems and so on. There is no one way to deal with all conflicts because these are situational. Conflict is an inseparable part of personal, organisational and societal life.

Conflicts can also arise due to competition, differences in values, attitudes, experiences, goals. For example, your spouse wants you to make a visit to your in-laws’ place on a holiday but you have plans of organizing a picnic on that day with your office colleagues. Or in your office you may not agree with your boss on the amount of budget a project requires. Or you and your colleagues could have different ideas on how to implement new performance management system.

Conflict has been defined in as many ways as it can arise. However, a few themes are common: competing goals, ideas, attitudes, beliefs, values, etc. Conflict may be defined “as a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about.”

At this stage, you might be tempted to ask quite a few questions about the role of conflict in groups and organisations: Can you avoid all conflicts? Are conflicts inevitable? Is it at all good to have any conflict? Who is primarily responsible for allowing a conflict to take place? What should be the role of a manager once it arises? These are very important questions which people tend to answer in one way or the other depending on the views they hold about the situation giving rise to conflict. Even the views about conflict are "conflicting". In this section, we shall examine these views and their impact on management practices.

The Traditional View

The traditional view, prevalent in the 1930s and 1940s, regarded all conflicts as harmful. Conflict was invariably viewed negatively and was associated with violence, turbulence, agitation, destruction and irrationality. It was believed that conflict indicated a malfunctioning within the organisation and that the appearance of conflict was the consequence of the management's failure to bind the employees and the organisation together. It could also arise due to failure to communicate the commonality between the individual and organisational interests. Had the management corrected those lapses, according to the traditionalists, there would have been no conflict, and the organisation would have been able to function as a smooth integrated whole. In fact, Frederick Taylor, the father of "Scientific Management" was of the opinion that if the

principles of scientific management were properly applied, the age-old conflict between labour and management would have disappeared. The traditionalist view offers a simplified approach to conflict. Since conflict in any form is bad and is to be avoided, we need to isolate and eliminate the factors that cause conflict. Research studies have, however, provided evidence contrary to this viewpoint, yet many of us continue to believe that conflict is unnecessary and is to be always avoided.

The Behavioural View

The behavioural school of thought argues that conflict is the logical and inevitable outcome in any organisation and as such should be accepted. The conflict theory was dominated by the behaviouralist approach from the late 1940s through the mid-1970s.

The behaviourists maintained that since an organisation has individuals having different perceptions of goals and differing values, conflict was bound to arise. For instance, managers of various departments could have separate priorities and conflicting ideas about resource allocation. Hence conflict was the unavoidable outcome. Subordinates might clash with the manager over whether a given work can be accomplished in the given period of time or not. They might even argue with subordinates at their own level over the best possible way to do a given job.

Thus, according to the behaviourists, conflict was an unavoidable outcome but at the same time they believed that conflict need not always be detrimental. Under some circumstances, it could bring forth the problems and inspire a search for better and more innovative solutions. Though the behaviourists conceded that conflict could lead to greater creativity in problem solving and could be beneficial to organisations under certain conditions, yet they perceived conflict as harmful— something to be resolved as soon as it arose. They considered that by nature, people were basically good; trust, cooperation and goodness are given in human nature. According to the behaviourist, the major antecedent conditions which induce aggressiveness and conflict in people are the faulty policies and structure resulting in distortion and breakdown in communication. Hence, the manager's role in resolving conflict is to restore understanding, trust and openness between parties. This is particularly true where one has public dealing as in power utilities where perceptions of customers and management may differ vastly on a number of issues and the way problems could be resolved.

The Interactionist View

The thinking currently prevalent about conflict has been labelled as the interactionist view. In contrast to the behaviouralist view, which considers conflict as inevitable, the interactionists not only accept conflict but also encourage it. However, they maintain that conflict must be regulated so that it does not get out of control producing dysfunctional consequences. The inevitability of conflict results from the interaction between organisationally imposed struggle for limited rewards (e.g., status, responsibility or power) and innate aggressive and competitive instincts in people. Against this perspective, the interactionists maintain that if harmony, peace, tranquillity and cooperation

prevail in a situation for a long time, the group is prone to become non-responsive to innovation and change. To shake the group out of its complacency and to make it proactive, self-critical and creative, an ongoing minimum level of conflict should be maintained. Advocates of interactionist view emphasise that the mission of management is effective goal attainment rather than creation of harmony and cooperation. So as a manager, your task is not to eliminate or reduce conflict but to manage it in such a manner that its beneficial effects are maximised and its negative or harmful aspects are minimised. Such a conflict management practice may even include stimulation of conflict to give impetus to innovation and creativity.

Activity 1: Comparison of views on conflict

Test your comprehension on the three views of conflict by identifying the following statements as "TRUE" or "FALSE".

Statement	True	False
i) According to traditional view, all conflicts are avoidable.	☐	☐
ii) Frederick Taylor believed that conflict can be good for an organisation.	☐	☐
iii) Behaviouralists accepted conflict as inevitable but were not in favour of encouraging it.	☐	☐
iv) According to the behaviouralists, the manager's role is to resolve conflict by restoring understanding, trust and openness between parties.	☐	☐
v) Behaviouralist view is the current view of the conflict.	☐	☐
vi) Interactionists maintain that all conflicts should be eliminated.	☐	☐
vii) The current thinking is that the absence of conflict may indicate the group's non-responsiveness to need for change and innovation.	☐	☐

9.3 CONFLICT: TYPES AND LEVELS

You can locate conflict at various levels. There could be conflict within oneself, between individuals, between groups, etc. We now discuss various levels of conflicts and their types.

Conflict within an Individual

Different types of conflicts could arise within an individual. Suppose you get an excellent job offer in a city where you are not willing to go to. In such a case, you are attracted to and repelled by the same object – an approach-avoidance conflict. Similarly, you may be attracted to two equally appealing alternatives like seeing a movie or going for a picnic—an **approach-approach conflict**. You may also be repelled by two equally unpleasant alternatives like the threat of being dismissed if you fail to report against a friendly colleague who is guilty of breaking the organisation's rules – an avoidance-avoidance conflict.

Conflict can also take an interpersonal form. Conflict between individuals takes place owing to several factors, but the most common ones are personal dislikes or personality differences. When there are differences only of opinion between individuals about task-related matters, it can be construed as technical conflict rather than interpersonal conflict. Of course, technical and interpersonal conflicts may influence each other due to role-related pressures. The sales manager may put the blame for low sales volume on the production manager for below par quality or not meeting her/his production schedule and may start considering the production manager as an incompetent person. It is often very difficult to establish whether a conflict between two parties is due to rational factors, or it emanates from hidden personal factors.

Conflict between an Individual and a Group

These types of intragroup conflicts arise frequently due to an individual's inability to conform to the group norms. For example, most groups have an group's productivity norms. If the individual idea of a "fair day's work" and may pressurise an individual if s/he exceeds or falls short of the resents any such pressure, s/he could come into conflict with other group members. Usually, it is very difficult for an individual to remain a group-member and at the same time, substantially deviate from the group norm. So, in most cases, either s/he conforms to the group norm or quits (or is rejected by) the group. Of course, before taking any such extreme step, s/he or the other group members try to influence each other through several mechanisms leading to different episodes of conflict (much to the delight of the researchers in this field called Group Dynamics).

Conflict between Groups within an Organisation

Inter-group conflicts are one of the most important types of conflicts to understand, as typically, an organisation is structured in the form of several interdependent task-groups. Some of the usually chronic conflicts in most of the organisations are at this level, e.g., Union vs. Management, one Union vs. another Union; one functional area like production vs. another functional area like maintenance; direct recruits vs. promotees, etc. What kind of conflicts do you come across between groups within a power utility?

Conflict between Organisations

Conflict between organisations is considered desirable if limited to the economic context only. The laissez-faire economy is based on this concept. It is assumed that conflict between organisations would lead to innovative and new products, technological advancement, and better services at lower prices.

Activity 2:

Types of Conflict

- a) Recall an interpersonal conflict situation in your utility where you found two persons you care about were in conflict due to hostility, and strong opinions. Outline the triggering events and what exactly happened. What did you do? Did you involve yourself to such an extent that you had to take a

position? Or did you attempt to mediate? Or were you just observing what was happening? Or did you leave the scene because you thought it was none of your business?

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b) Cite an example of inter-group conflict in your utility. (It can be an example of lateral conflicts, e.g., between two departments or two unions. Or it can be an example of vertical conflict between the union and the management.) List the behaviours of the groups which made you to infer that they are in conflict.

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There are several types of conflicts according to different classification schemes. Some schemes are explained ahead:

Classification Scheme I

- a) **Functional conflict:** This is a constructive form of conflict because people primarily differ on ideas or perceptions. It supports the goals of the group and improves its performance. It also leads to innovation and creativity.
- b) **Dysfunctional conflict:** This is a destructive form of conflict. Traditional view of conflict is known for its dysfunctional nature. It involves anger, hostility and frustration, and affects group performance. Managers find it difficult to identify whether a conflict is functional or dysfunctional. The following questions may be used to diagnose whether a conflict is functional or dysfunctional:

- Are the parties in conflict hostile to each other?
- Is the outcome likely to be negative for the organization?
- Do the potential losses of the parties exceed any potential gains?
- Is energy being diverted from goal accomplishment?

If the majority of these questions have yes as answers, then you are probably faced with dysfunctional conflict. Such conflict needs to be resolved on an urgent basis. If answers to these questions are negative, then you may be in the zone of functional conflict, which you may choose to stimulate. Another situation, where as a manager you may like to stimulate conflict is when the group is in the process of groupthink and is not willing to examine various alternatives and its creativity has gone down.

Classification Scheme II

- a) Task conflict: Relates to content and goal of work.
- b) Relationship conflict: Based on interpersonal relationships
- c) Process conflict: Relates to how the work gets done.

Classification Scheme III

This involves two types of conflicts based on their contents/sources.

- a) **Intrinsic conflict:** It is based on rational and intellectual contents. Resolving intrinsic conflict requires an analytical approach.
- b) **Extrinsic conflict:** It has psychological and emotional contents. Resolving extrinsic conflict requires social tackling diplomatically.

Classification Scheme IV

In this scheme, classification is based on perfected frustrations and emotions.

- a) **Realistic conflict:** It is based on rational, task or goal oriented confrontations.
- b) **Non-realistic conflict:** It is based on projected frustrations and emotions.

Classification Scheme V

Conflict may also be classified based on the situation.

- a) **Substantive conflict:** These are task related conflicts.
- b) **Affective conflict:** This conflict is related to socio-emotional or interpersonal relational issues.

In addition, there are two more types of conflicts.

- **Inter-role conflict:** It occurs when a person receives contradictory expectations in the same role. It may also be due to competing demand between two different roles carried out by an individual. For example, a manager may suggest to an employee to finish the project under tight schedule, which is really unrealistic. This may generate inter-role conflict.
- **Person-role conflict:** This type of conflict arises when an individual is asked to do certain things as a part of his/her role, which is against his/her personal value system. For example, a person strongly feels the need to prevent environmental pollution in providing supply to a locality/ individual. But s/he is asked to defend the act of unguarded pollution of her/his company to the Government officials. Such expectations put a person in the person-role conflict.

Activity 3:

Levels of conflict

Interview five employees at different hierarchical levels regarding the conflicts they have faced and categorize them as per the classifications discussed above.

9.4 SOURCES OF CONFLICT

In the previous sections, you have learnt that it would be naive to think that conflicts in an organisation take place simply due to lack of understanding between people. A large number of potential sources of conflict exist in organisational life as antecedent conditions and form a realistic basis for some conflicts. In this section, we shall quickly review some such sources.

Competition for Limited Resources

Any group exists for the purpose of attaining some goals within the available resources. These resources may be tangible like men, materials, and money or intangible like power, status or the manager's time. No organisation can provide all the resources demanded by different units. If resources are limited, different groups have to compete for these and many conflicts may arise in such a situation.

Diversity of Goals

Different groups in an organisation perform different functions and hence develop their own norms and goals. Theoretically, achievement of these goals should help an organisation to fulfil its mission. But, in practice, it is possible that goals of one group may not be compatible with the goals of another group. Take, for example, a company which manufactures electric fans, which have seasonal demand. Three departments—marketing, production and finance—would be involved in various operations. Since the demand for the product is seasonal, the marketing manager would like to have sufficient stock. The production department will have to gear up its capacity during the season but if labour market is tight, s/he may find it difficult to hire labour temporarily and therefore suggest resorting to employment of people on a permanent basis. The finance manager may find the storage costs high and it may be expensive to keep stock build up. Besides, maintaining the production line during slack season imposes an additional burden.

This example shows that goals of different departments may be conflicting and one department may try to achieve its goals at the expense of another. This happens quite often when the reward system is linked to group performance rather than to overall organisational performance.

Does such a source of conflict exist in your utility?

Task Interdependence

Groups in an organisation do not function independent of one another. They have to interact with one another in order to accomplish their tasks. The sales department will have nothing to sell unless the production people generate power to meet the ever growing demand and for this the finance department

has to provide adequate funds. Thus smooth interaction between various groups is essential for efficient functioning of the organisation. Three types of interdependences can cause inter-group conflict **pooled**, **sequential** and **reciprocal**.

- **Pooled interdependence** exists when two groups, which do not interact with each other directly, are affected by each other's actions. It is then possible that if one independent group performs poorly, all other groups may suffer financially. This can happen when rewards are contingent upon collective performance. For example, if T&D losses are high and metering/billing is faulty, the overall revenue generation will be low and adversely affect the interest of all in a power utility.
- **Sequential interdependence** occurs when one group's performance depends on another group's prior performance. In a construction project, for example, the excavating team must prepare the foundation before the masons can work on the building structure. Since the masons depend on the excavators, conflict between the groups can occur when the excavators' work is delayed.
- **Reciprocal interdependence** occurs when two or more groups are mutually interdependent in accomplishing their tasks. For example, in developing and marketing a new product, three major departments (marketing, production and research) depend on each other to perform their tasks. Information possessed by a department is needed by another department. That is, the research department needs market information and marketing needs research to provide customer services. When one group is unable to meet the expectations of another, inter-group conflict usually results.

Differences in Values and Perception

A lot of conflict is generated within organisations because various groups within a organisation hold 'conflicting' values and perceive situations in a narrow and individualistic manner. Management-labour conflict is a well known example. Labour nurtures the feeling that management is exploiting it, if in spite of making a profit, the latter does nothing for the economic welfare of the former. On the other hand, management feels that the profits should go to cash reserves so as to make the company an attractive proposition for investors. Can you think of a similar situation in your power utility?

Organisational Ambiguities

Conflict may emerge when two organisational units compete over a new responsibility. Inter-group conflict stemming from disagreement about who has the responsibility for ongoing tasks is an even more frequent problem. Newcomers to organisations are often struck by the ambiguity that exists about job responsibilities. Few organisations make extensive use of job descriptions or periodically update the job descriptions. Further, it is rare that a manager or employee consults her/his own job description.

Introduction of Change

Change can breed inter-group conflict. Acquisitions and mergers, for example, encourage inter-group conflict, competition, and stress. When one organisation

is merged into another, a power struggle often sets in between the employees of the acquiring and acquired companies. To minimise conflict, it is important to lay down plans for power sharing before the acquisition or merger is consummated. Frequently, the acquired company is given representation on the Board of Directors of the acquiring company. Nevertheless, power struggles are difficult to avoid.

Nature of Communication

One of the major fallacies abounding about conflict is that poor communication is the cause of all conflicts. A typical statement is: 'if we could just communicate with each other well, we could eliminate our differences.' Since we have very little time for communicating with one another, considering the workload most of us have, conflict due to poor communication can arise unknowingly. In fact, the potential for conflict increases when either too little or too much communication takes place. Apparently, an increase in communication is functional only up to a point; over-communication can result in potential for conflict. That is, too much or too little information sharing can lay the foundation for a conflict.

Aggressive Nature of People

Another factor that has immense potential for generating conflict within an organisation is personality characteristics that account for individual differences. Evidence suggests that certain personality types – for example, individuals who are highly authoritarian, arrogant, autocratic or dogmatic – lead to potential conflict. People have a natural need to find an outlet for their aggressive tendencies. Organisations are sometimes used as arenas for expression of aggression – 'blowing off steam' – leading to conflict.

This discussion on the sources of conflict is intended to emphasise that no organisation can remain conflict-free for all times. However, these sources are not to be confused with the causes of a conflict. A conflict, in ultimate analysis, is caused by perceptions and feelings people experience when an incompatibility exists between what they want and what someone else wants. When perception of incompatibility and feeling of frustration are translated into actions, conflict is manifested.

Activity 4:

What are the potential and actual sources of conflict in your utility? Is one particular source more recurrent than others?

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Table 9.1 lists seven potential sources of interpersonal and inter-group conflict along with the resultant orientation under the conflict-escalation and conflict prevention/resolution modes.

Table 9.1: Potential Sources of Conflict and Resultant Orientations

Potential Source of Conflict	Conflict-escalation Mode		Conflict-prevention/ Resolution Mode	
	Perception	Resultant Orientation	Perception	Resultant Orientation
Concern with self	Narrow (own)	Short-term perspective	Broader	Long-term perspective
Different goals	Conflicting	Individualistic	Complementary	Super ordination
Resources	Limited	Fighting	Expandable	
Power	Limited	Lack of trust	Shareable	Sharing
Ideologies	Conflicting	Stereotyping	Varied	Trust
Varied norms	Undesirable	Intolerance	Useful	Understanding
Relationship	Dependent	Dominance/ Submission	Interdependent	Tolerance Empathy and Cooperation

Some other sources of conflict may be enumerated as follows:

- People in a group are likely to experience conflict when they have more concern for self (i.e., selfishness). Conflict generates if members have a narrow perspective resulting in a focus on short-term gains. The group is likely to remain in conflict till the members broaden their perceptions by working for ‘super-ordinate goals’.
- Superordinate goals are necessary for all members in a group but cannot be achieved individually. On a long term perspective, conflict can be prevented when members realise that the interests of all can be served by collective efforts.
- Conflict often arises when available resources have to be shared within groups or between individuals. When members perceive that their share in the resources is limited, they tend to contest.
- When power is perceived as limited, group members develop lack of trust which leads to conflict. A situation in which members feel that power is being shared, leads to trust amongst them.
- Stereotyping may result in a group if ideologies differ which ultimately lead towards conflict. If members accept varied ideologies in spite of differences, understanding may ensue.
- Sometimes conflict arises in a group when members realise that uniform norms breed intolerance. If members feel that norms take into account the diversity, they can learn tolerance.
- Another source of conflict may be the dynamics of relationships. In dependent roles, the members perceive the chances of dominance/submission which result in conflicts and stereotyped relations.

9.5 EFFECTS OF CONFLICT

From the discussion on different views on conflict, you could infer that conflict can have both positive and negative impact on individuals, groups and organisations. For example, as a result of inter-group conflict, certain changes occur within groups and between groups. Some changes have positive effects while others may have negative effects. As a result of inter-group conflict, some changes that may occur within the groups involved are:

- 1) **Group cohesiveness increases:** The group becomes more closely knit; its members show greater loyalty.
- 2) **The group becomes task-oriented:** Group climate changes from informal to task-oriented and helps to deal with the external threat.
- 3) **Leadership becomes more directive:** As the group becomes more task-oriented, the leader becomes more authoritarian.
- 4) **Organisational structure becomes more rigid:** Authority and responsibility relationships among and between members becomes more clearly defined.
- 5) **Group unity is stressed:** The group demands increasing loyalty and conformity from its members.

Prolonged group conflicts cause the following changes in relationship between groups:

- 1) **Groups become antagonistic towards each other:** Each group sees the other as an enemy who interferes with its goal-oriented behaviour.
- 2) **Perceptions are distorted:** Each group develops positive perceptions about its own group and negative perceptions towards the other.
- 3) **Communication ceases to exist:** When in conflict, members of one group avoid interaction with members of the other. If they are forced to interact, they tend to show hostility and aggression towards each other.
- 4) **Groups apply a double standard:** Each group clearly sees all the vicious acts of the other party while remaining blind to the same acts performed by their own group.

From the above two lists of changes within and between groups in conflict, you can spot a number of negative effects. What about some **potential benefits** of inter-group conflicts? Here is such a list:

- 1) **Conflict clarifies the real issue:** When individuals in a group express their concerns and differences, it helps sharpen the real issue involved in a problem. Without conflict, many organisational problems go unnoticed and remain unresolved.
- 2) **Conflict increases innovation:** Conflict generates a greater diversity of ideas and viewpoints. Such diversity can stimulate innovation in organisational practices.

- 3) **Inter-group conflict solidifies the group:** When members of a group are faced with an external enemy, they tend to work together more closely to deal with it. A manager may use this new cohesion to reduce internal conflicts.
- 4) **Conflict serves as a catharsis:** Conflict can provide an outlet through which organisational members can ventilate their feelings without damaging organisational functioning.
- 5) **Conflict resolution solidifies inter-group relationships:** Once group conflict is successfully resolved, it can solidify the relationships between groups and it may even make the groups feel closer to each other.

A balanced view of the effects of conflicts leads us to the following conclusion:

Conflict is inherently neither good nor bad but simply has the potential to improve or impair an organisation's performance through its consequences. Conflicts that result in increased organisational performance and help an organisation to attain its goals may be termed as **Functional**. On the other hand, conflicts that hinder organisational growth and prevent it from achieving its goals can be termed as **Dysfunctional**. Thus, conflict in certain forms can be functional or dysfunctional depending on its nature, intensity, duration and the manner in which it is handled.

You may now like to ask: **How does one know whether a conflict is functional or dysfunctional? On what criteria should one base one's judgment about the value of conflict?**

It is true that the demarcation between functional and dysfunctional conflict is neither clear nor precise. Since a group exists to achieve certain predetermined goals, the functionality of a conflict can be measured by the impact it has on group/unit performance, rather than on a single individual.

Fig. 9.1 shows the relationship between organisational conflict and group or unit performance. You will note that there is an optimal, highly functional level of conflict at which the unit's performance is at the maximum. This can happen because at that level of conflict, the group or the unit's internal environment is characterised by self-criticism and innovativeness. When the conflict level is too low, it is dysfunctional as the unit's performance may be low due to apathy, stagnation, lack of new ideas and non-responsiveness of the unit-members to the demands of change. In such a situation, a manager may have to resort to stimulating conflicts to make the unit more viable. On the other hand, when the conflict level is too high, it is again dysfunctional, as the survival of the group or the unit is threatened owing to diversion of energies away from performance and goal attainment activities of the members. Chaos and disruption prevails. Naturally, the most important managerial task becomes how to resolve the conflict.

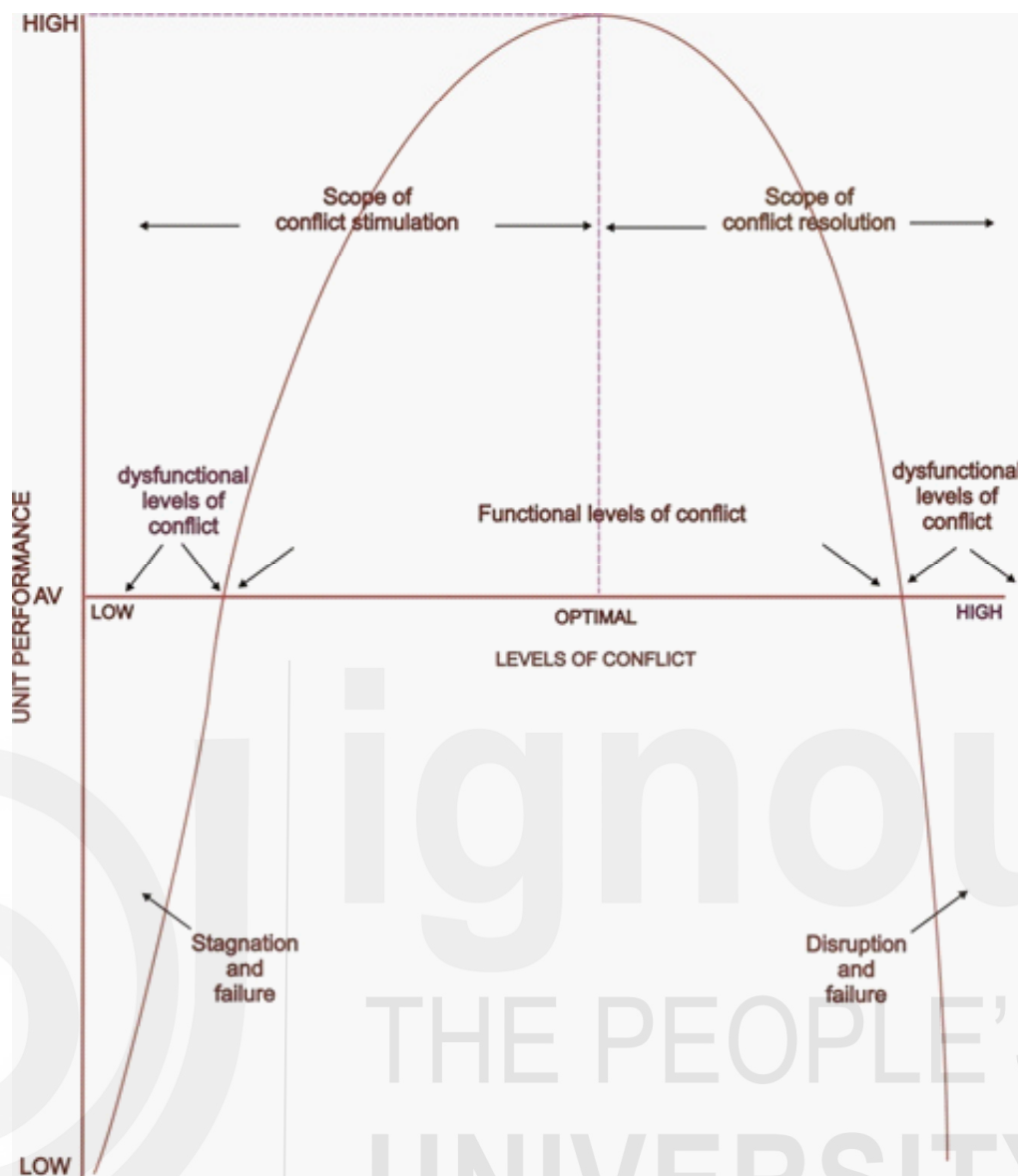


Fig.9.1: Organisational Conflict and Performance

Activity 5:

Inter-group conflict

a) Recapitulate your experience of an inter-group conflict in your work situation. Refer to the changes within and between groups listed in this section. Check whether or not such changes take place in your utility. Did you notice some additional changes? Referring to your group as A and the other as B, narrate the entire proceedings of the events from the eyes of an outsider in the form of a case.

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b) Locate a workgroup where there is almost no conflict and the group is characterised by peace and tranquillity. Collect some data on this group's performance and the average performance of all other similar groups but with different degrees of conflict. Plot the performance of this group against the average performance. Check whether the relationship between unit performance and absence of conflict suggested in Fig. 4.1 is correct. Revise your understanding, if need be.

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Table 9.2 lists some consequences of conflict.

Table 9.2: Consequences of Conflict

Positive Consequences	Negative Consequences
Leads to new ideas Stimulates creativity	Diverts energy from work Threatens psychological wellbeing
Motivates change	Wastes resources
Promotes organizational vitality	Creates a negative climate
Helps individuals and groups to establish identities	Breaks down group cohesion
Serves as a safety valve to indicate problem behaviours	Increases hostility and aggression

9.6 CONFLICT PROCESS

So far you have learnt about the nature of conflict, its sources and consequences. You need to understand the conflict process, i.e., how conflict develops in order to be able to manage it. There are many approaches to describe the conflict process. We will be discussing two most popular and widely accepted approaches. For a conflict to exist it must be perceived in that light by the parties involved. If no one is aware of conflict then it is generally agreed that no conflict exists. Still, does a mere awareness of opposing goals, or differences of option, or antagonistic feelings imply that there is a conflict? It would be easier for you to understand conflict, if you view it as a dynamic process which includes antecedent conditions, cognitive states, affective states and conflicting behaviour. Look at Fig. 4.2 on the conflict process and you will be able to describe and analyse conflict between two parties individuals, groups or organisations in a chain of episodes which tend to unfold in a particular sequence.

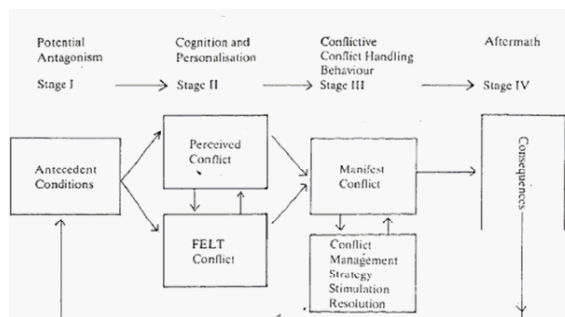


Fig. 9.2: The Conflict Process

Stage I: Potential Antagonism

The first stage is the presence of antecedent conditions that create opportunities for conflict to arise. They need not necessarily lead to conflict and may be present in the absence of conflict as well. You may refer to this stage as the source of conflict which we have discussed.

Stage II: Cognition and Personalisation

The antecedent conditions may or may not lead to conflict. **They must be perceived as threatening, if conflict is to develop.** The situation may be ignored if it is seen as minimally threatening. Moreover, if a conflict is perceived, it does not mean that it is personalised ("felt conflict"). However, if feelings are generated, they tend to influence perception of the conflict. When individuals become emotionally involved, they experience feelings of hostility, fear, mistrust or being threatened. This is the stage of felt conflict.

Stage III: Conflictive and Conflict-management Behaviour

Manifest behaviour is the action resulting from perceived and/or felt conflict. At this stage, a conscious attempt is made by one party to block the goal achievement of the other party. Such behaviour may range from subtle, indirect and highly controlled forms of interference to more open forms of aggressive behaviour like strikes, riots and war.

Most conflict-handling behaviours are displayed in several forms like resignation and withdrawal, appeasement and compromise, confrontation and collaboration, etc. These behaviours are often referred to as conflict management styles and stem from the strategies of conflict stimulation or conflict resolution. In a later section, we shall discuss some of these modes of conflict management.

Stage IV: Aftermath

The interplay between different forms of overt conflict behaviour and conflict handling strategies of stimulation or resolution influence the consequences. These consequences (in terms of performances of the group, the level of satisfaction and quality of relationship, change of structure and policies, etc.), in turn, influence the antecedent conditions and probability of future conflict. Sometimes, the aftermath sows the seeds of yet another conflict episode wherein the entire process is repeated.

The four-stage conflict-process model is a very useful framework to understand any conflict. On the basis of such a framework, you can now define conflict as the process which begins when one party (A) perceives that the other party (B) is making some conscious efforts to frustrate it in pursuing its interest. Party A and/or B may be an individual and/or group(s).

Activity 6:

Think about a conflict episode in your workplace between two parties about whom you have some knowledge. What were the antecedent conditions which allowed the conflict to arise? How did the two parties respectively perceive the conflict situation? What were their respective feelings? What manifest

behaviour showed that they were in conflict? How was the conflict managed? What were the consequences? Prepare a report on the conflict process.

Forsyth's Model

This is a five stage conflict resolution model which may be used to understand task as well as process conflict. Features of each stage are shown in Fig. 9.3.

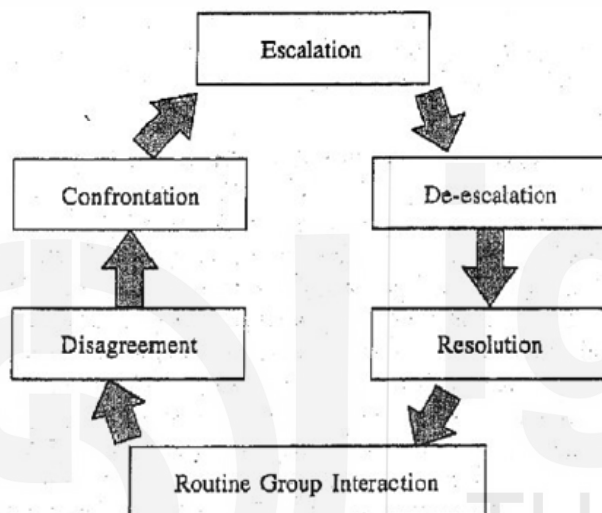


Fig. 9.3: Forsyth Model of Conflict Resolution

Disagreement: Usually a conflict begins when differences surface. Minor ones are normally resolved. Individuals change their views. Some less critical issues are deferred. Differences perceived as real and substantive are acknowledged.

Confrontation: When one or more members of the groups voice that they hold certain beliefs and values incompatible with that of other member(s), they may face opposition. Members may also differ on goals or on mechanism of sharing of resources. If so, we say that conflict exists. The issues are debated and commitment to respective positions may intensify as emotions are aroused. Then communication becomes less rational.

Escalation: In this stage, conflict gives birth to further conflicts. People become more aggressive. Trust is lost and a negative norm of reciprocity develops forcing an orientation “you will get what you give”. An eye for an eye slogan becomes favourite in this phase.

De-escalation: While fighting escalation stage, parties drain a lot of their energy and emotions may cool down. Some sense of rationality and understanding re-emerges out of necessity. Group protection norm emerges. Trust may or may not develop depending on issue and intensity of disagreement. Negotiation, conciliation, or some kind of resolution may be initiated at this stage. Parties may agree to compromise or to look for broader perspective in the interest of

the group. If nothing works, third party may be invited for intervention. This intervention may be appropriate only when emotional intensity of the conflict has subsided parties are ready to listen.

Resolution: At this stage there are varieties of activities in the group leading to resolution. Group may change its stand, or minority members could be sacrificed in the interest of the larger group. Members genuinely get persuaded. A fraction of the group may withdraw seeing the futility of its efforts. Leader may veto the decision and resolve the conflict. It may be resolved by votes.

9.7 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

There are several conflict management frameworks available. In this unit, we discuss three frameworks of conflict management:

- Thomas' framework
- Pareek's framework
- Contingency framework

Thomas's framework

In this framework, the primary conflict management tactics are identified in two dimensions – **cooperativeness** (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy other party's concerns) and **assertiveness** (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns). There are five conflict management tactics: **competing** (assertive and uncooperative), **collaborating** (assertive and cooperative), **avoiding** (unassertive and cooperative), **accommodating** (unassertive and cooperative) and **compromising** (midrange on both assertiveness and cooperativeness). Fig. 9.4 shows these dimensions of conflict management.

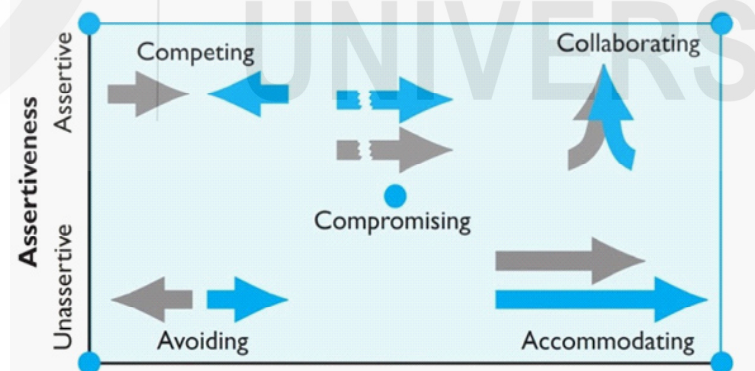


Fig. 9.4: Dimensions of Conflict-handling Intentions~ Thomas' Framework

We now explain these in brief.

- **Competing:** In this, a person desires to satisfy one's own interests, regardless of the impact on the other party in the conflict.
- **Collaborating:** A situation in which each party to a conflict desires to satisfy fully the concerns of all parties.
- **Avoiding:** It is the desire of a person to withdraw from a conflicting situation or suppress it.

- **Accommodating:** In order to maintain the relationship, one party may be willing to be self-sacrificing.
- **Compromising:** In this situation, each party to a conflicting situation is willing to give and take something.

Pareek's Framework

This framework proposes eight styles of conflict management based on two modes: **avoidance modes** (avoiding or postponing conflicts) and **approach modes** (aggressive or confrontationist conflicts) (Fig. 9.5).

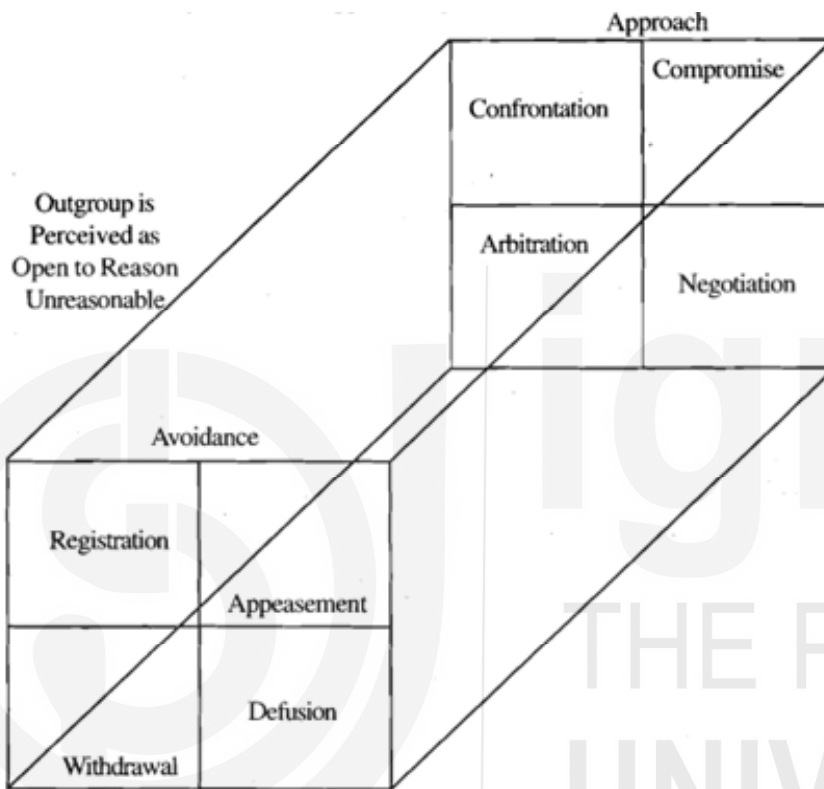


Fig. 9.5: Pareek's Conflict Management Framework

- a) **Avoidance Modes:** There are four main avoidance styles:
- **Resignation:** This is the extreme avoidance mode with a sense of helplessness.
 - **Withdrawal:** In this form of avoidance, the attempt is to get away from the conflict.
 - **Defusion:** The main objective of the defusion mode of conflict resolution is to buy time for dealing with a conflict.
 - **Appeasement:** The main objective is to buy temporary peace. As a result, conflict remains unresolved and situation deteriorates further.
- b) **Approach Modes:** There are also four styles under this mode:
- **Confrontation:** Confrontation is fighting on an issue to get a solution in one's favour. This style involves coercion and is likely to fail to reach a solution.

- **Compromise:** This is the process of sharing the gain without resolving the conflict.
- **Arbitration:** In this case, third party may be sought to assess the conflicting situation objectively and give an award acceptable to both the parties.
- **Negotiation:** The most satisfactory solution can emerge only when both groups jointly confront the problem and explore alternative solutions.

During the conflict situation, the in-group and out-group are addressed as we and they. Out-group is considered to have interest opposed to in-group and the former is seen as belligerent. Then conflict seems to be inevitable. But if the out-group is perceived distracted or disinterested, conflict may not arise. Once conflict has surfaced, out-group may still be perceived in two ways – open to reason (interested in listening, holding a dialogue and solving the problem) and unreasonable (not amenable to logic and hence a low probability of solution).

The avoidance mode is based on fear and results in defensive behaviour like rationalisation, emotional displacement and anger. Approach mode is based on positive psychology characterised by effort to find solution with the help of others. We briefly describe the avoidance and approach styles.

Avoidance styles: Extreme avoidance of conflict happens when the out-group is belligerent and unreasonable. This results in a sense of helplessness. However, if the out-group is perceived interested in power, avoidance takes place in a manner that opportunity for interaction is minimum. However, when out-group is perceived as open to reason, avoidance takes the positive form of withdrawal from the conflict. If both groups are interested in peace, they may suppress the conflict and hide hurt feelings and losses. Under the avoidance mode no conflict gets resolved.

Approach styles: Conflict management may vary from very aggressive approach to a very positive and constructive approach. If in-group perceives the out-group both as opposed to its interest and unreasonable, in-group members fight for solution in their favour. This is also called the 'win-lost trap'. This is where parties use confrontation style. If out-group is perceived as unreasonable but interested in peace, compromise is used. When out-group is perceived as belligerent but open to reason, arbitration or third party intervention is considered appropriate. When parties are reasonable, having their own interest but keen to arrive at a peaceful solution, negotiation will be the most appropriate strategy.

Activity 7:

We have listed eight styles of conflict management. Rank them in terms of your own preferences. (Give rank 1 to the statement which best describes your style; 2 to the statement which is the next best description, and so on. Thus, the statement which is least true of your style will get a rank of 8.)

- a) Dialogue with the conflicting party on the underlying problem and joint search for a mutually acceptable solution
- b) Work out your best solution for the conflict and fight for its acceptance for implementation

- c) Do nothing about the conflict because such attempts usually do not help
- d) Involve third party for arbitration
- e) Allow some time to pass, hoping that things will cool down and thus help to solve the problem
- f) Provide small concessions to the opposite party
- g) Avoid situations that are likely to lead to conflicts
- h) In the spirit of give and take, accept some demands made by the other party in exchange for meeting some of your own

Contingency Framework

Contingency framework for conflict management proposes three main strategies: **collaboration**, **bargaining** and **power play**. It suggests that **collaboration** is best suited when relationship between the parties is of an interdependent nature, cost of unresolved conflict is very high and organisation supports the open expression of disagreements and working on the same.

Bargaining works fine when parties are interested in showing adjustment. It is used as a mechanism to allocate scarce resources and usually invoked for arriving at a formal agreement. Bargaining is also effective in situations where parties to disagreement use either collaboration or power play and fail to arrive an agreement; bargain works for them as a middle path.

Power play is used to deal with conflict through striking balance between competing forces. This strategy works well with people who are well versed in using power tactics.

Negotiation is the greatest weapon and used only when various processes have matured. It may not always be a desirable mode for resolving conflict. However, it is a onstructive mode of conflict management. Parties involved in conflict may like to move towards negotiation mode eventually as negotiation recognises the power and willingness of both parties to resolve the problem in mutually beneficial way.

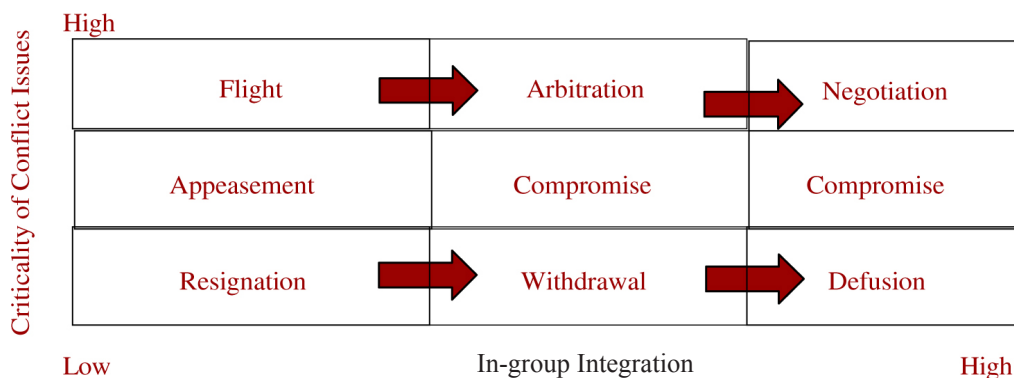


Fig. 9.6: Contingency Model of Conflict Management

Two variables seem to influence the choice of mode or strategies: Integration of the in-group and criticality of the issue. If the group is not well integrated, negotiation may not be an appropriate strategy. If the group is internally divided, the group conflict may further worsen under the threat of out-group. A group would risk negotiation only when the issue of the conflict is very central to the group. Non-substantive issues may not get that much energy of the group (Fig. 4.6).

Integration of the in-group and criticality of the conflict may vary from low to high. As the two variables approach high, approach strategies of conflict management may become more relevant and eventually parties may move towards negotiation. Movement towards negotiation may be through compromise or through third party intervention, who can facilitate the process of negotiation. Adoption of negotiation may be a gradual process and parties may take their own time to understand and proceed towards that.

9.8 CONFLICT PREVENTION

We can now move to examine the modes through which conflict can be handled so as to result in optimal unit performance. You have already seen that when conflict level is too low, the unit performance is also likely to be low and there is a scope for a perceptive manager to stimulate conflict in order to enhance the performance of the group. Similarly, when the level of conflict is too high, conflict needs to be resolved so as to restore high performance and optimal level of conflict. So, in this section, we shall examine both the strategies of conflict management – stimulation as well as resolution.

Stimulating Productive Conflict

Most of us since childhood have been taught to avoid conflict and even disagreement. How many times have you heard the statements "Don't Argue", "Stop fighting" or "It's better to turn the other cheek"? However, this tendency to avoid conflict is not always productive and there are times when there is a need to stimulate conflict. In an interesting experiment, a series of groups were formed to tackle a particular problem. In some groups, a member was planted to challenge the majority opinion. Without fail, all groups that had a planted member came up with a more perceptive solution. However, when the groups were asked to drop a member, all groups that had a planted member chose to drop the dissenting member despite clear evidence that the conflict was beneficial. Such resistance to conflict is what managers have to overcome in stimulating productive conflict.

The following may be taken as signs where conflict stimulation is needed

- the organisation is full of "yes men";
- employees are afraid to admit ignorance;
- compromise is stressed in decision making;
- managers put too much emphasis on harmony and peace;
- people are afraid of hurting the feelings of others;
- popularity is given more importance than technical competence;

- people show great resistance to change;
- new ideas are not forthcoming; and
- there is an unusually low rate of employee turnover.

How many of these apply to your organisation? The presence of one or more of these signs is usually an indication of the need for conflict stimulation. Once the need has been identified, you may adopt one or more of the following techniques:

1. Manipulate Communication Channels:

- deviate messages from traditional channels;
- repress information;
- transmit too much information; and
- transmit ambiguous or threatening information.

2. Alter the Organisation's Structure: (redefine jobs, alter tasks, reform units or activities).

- increase the size of the unit;
- increase specialisation or standardisation;
- add, delete or transfer organisational members; and
- increase interdependence between units.

3. Alter Personal Behaviour Factors

- change personality characteristics of leader;
- create role conflict; and
- develop role incongruence.

These are only suggestions. Depending upon your values and the organisation's value-system, some of the suggestions may even sound unethical as you may feel that a desirable end-state does not always justify the questionable means (like transmitting threatening information). We leave it for you to decide. But if by stimulating your value-conflict, we are successful in helping you to understand the important option of conflict stimulation, we shall consider that such conflicts are functional.

Resolving Interparty Conflict: How and When?

You have seen that stimulating conflict is a required mode of conflict management when groups are characterised by apathy, complacency, non-responsiveness to needed change, lack of enthusiasm for generating alternatives, etc. Though these symptoms are very much present in a number of work-units in Indian organisations (and hence call for appropriate conflict stimulation interventions), the more commonplace are heightened manifest conflicts. So, for most practical purposes, you should not only possess the knowledge of different strategies of conflict-resolution but also know when to use which strategy.

There is no dearth of literature in this area and different authors have given different taxonomies in reviewing possible conflict resolution strategies. Here we consider Feldman's strategies of inter-group conflict resolution, namely, **conflict avoidance, conflict defusion, conflict containment and conflict confrontation**.

The primary dimension along which inter-group conflict resolution strategies vary is how openly a manager should address the conflict. The chief characteristic of **conflict-avoidance** strategies is that they attempt to keep the conflict from coming into the open. The goal of **conflict-defusion** strategies is to keep the conflict in abeyance and to "cool" the emotions of the parties involved. **Conflict-containment** strategies allow some conflict to surface, but tightly control which issues are to be discussed and the manner in which they are discussed. **Conflict-confrontation** strategies are designed to uncover all the issues of the conflict and try to find a mutually satisfactory solution.

Conflict-avoidance Strategies

- **Ignoring the Conflict:** This strategy is represented by the absence of action. As a manager, you may have often avoided dealing with dysfunctional aspects of conflict. However, when you avoid searching for the causes of the conflict, the situation usually continues or worsens over time. Although ignoring the conflict generally is ineffective for resolving important policy issues, there are some circumstances in which it is at least a reasonable way of dealing with problems. One such circumstance in which ignoring the conflict is a reasonable strategy is where the issue seems to be symptomatic of other, more basic conflicts. For example, two groups may experience conflict over the amount and quality of office space. Such conflicts often reflect more important issues about relative power and status. Resolving the office space problem would not address the key issues, and attention could be directed more fruitfully to more basic concerns.
- **Imposing a Solution:** This strategy consists of forcing the conflicting parties to accept a solution devised by a higher authority. Imposing a solution does not allow much conflict to surface, nor does it leave room for the participants to air their grievances. So it is also, generally, an ineffective conflict resolution strategy. Any peace that it does achieve is likely to be short lived. Since the underlying issues are not addressed, the conflict reappears in other guises and in other situations.

Forcing a solution can, however, be appropriate when quick, decisive action is needed. For instance, when there is conflict over investment decisions, and delays can be very costly, forcing a solution may be the best strategy available to top management. Likewise, it may be necessary when unpopular decisions must be made and there is very little chance that the parties involved could ever reach agreement. A typical example is where an organisation must cut back on the funding of new initiatives. No department may agree to cut its staff and expenses for the larger good, but some hard unpleasant decisions ultimately may have to be made.

Conflict-defusion Strategies

- **Smoothing:** One way you can deal with conflict is to try to "smooth it over"

by playing down its extent or importance. You may try to persuade the groups that are not so far apart in their viewpoints as they think they are, point out the similarities in their positions, try to "pat" group members whose feelings have been hurt, or play down the importance of the issue. By smoothing the conflict, you can hope to decrease its intensity and avoid escalation or open hostility. Like forcing a solution, smoothing generally is ineffective because it does not address the key points of conflict.

However, smoothing sometimes can serve as a stop-gap measure to let people cool down and regain perspective. In the heat of the battle, people may make statements that are likely to escalate the conflict, and smoothing often can bring the disagreement back to a manageable level. Smoothing also may be appropriate when the conflict concerns non-work issues. For instance, inter-group conflict frequently occurs between older and younger employees because of their different political beliefs and moral values. Smoothing can help to defuse the tension and not allow the conflict to spill over into central work issues.

- **Appealing to Super-ordinate Goals:** You can defuse conflicts by focusing attention on the higher goals that the groups share or the long range aims that they have in common. This tends to make the current problem seem insignificant.

Finding super-ordinate goals that are important to both groups is not easy. Achieving these goals requires cooperation between the groups. So the rewards for achieving the goals must be significant. The most successful and most frequently used super-ordinate goal is organisational survival, i.e., if the sub-units do not cooperate sufficiently, the continued existence of the larger organisation itself will be severely jeopardised.

Conflict-containment Strategies

- **Using Representatives:** One of the strategies you can use to contain the conflict and decide an issue is to meet the representatives of the opposing groups rather than deal with the groups in their entirety. The rationale is that the representatives know the problems and can argue the groups' points of view accurately and forcefully.

Although this seems to be a logical way of proceeding, the research on the use of representatives as a means of solving inter-group conflict gives fairly negative indicators. Representatives are not entirely free to engage in compromise; they have to act out of loyalty and motivation to win (or at least avoid defeat) even though a solution to the inter-group problem may be sacrificed in the process. A representative who "gives in" is likely to face suspicion or rejection from group members. So if a representative cannot win, he or she will try to deadlock a solution or at least forestall defeat.

Although individual representatives have difficulty in negotiating an agreement because of their fear of rejection by their groups, situational factors can increase the effectiveness of this strategy: Use of group representatives from all sides can help overcome individual anxiety about group rejection. The members of each team can provide mutual support when they need to make concessions in order to achieve agreement. Also, groups

of negotiators may receive broader support and trust from their respective sides, since each representative may represent a different constituency or bring a different expertise to the negotiations. Most labour negotiations involve several representatives of both management and labour.

Resolving conflict through representatives is more effective only as long as rigid positions are not taken and/or are made public. If rigid positions have been taken, the representatives become even more intransigent, and the "give in" is more likely to be attributed to their personal failure than to situational factors.

- **Structuring the Interaction:** Some managers assume that one way to decrease conflict is to increase the amount of contact between the groups (if the groups interacted more, they would like each other better and fight less). In reality, increased interaction can merely add fuel to the fire; the two groups spend their time looking for additional reasons to reinforce mutual negative stereotypes. However, structuring the interaction between the groups can be effective in resolving conflict. Providing a framework on how many issues are discussed and the manner in which they are discussed can facilitate conflict resolution. There are many ways to structure the interaction between groups to deal with a conflict. Some of the most effective strategies allow some conflict to surface but prevent it from getting out of hand and reduce hardening of positions. These are given below:
 - ❖ Decreasing the amount of direct interaction between the groups early in the conflict helps to prevent the conflict from escalating.
 - ❖ Decreasing the amount of time between problem-solving meetings helps to prevent backsliding from tentative agreements.
 - ❖ Decreasing the formality of the presentation of issues helps to induce a problem-solving, rather than a win-lose orientation to the conflict.
 - ❖ Limiting how far back historically and how widely precedents can be cited helps to keep the focus on finding a solution to the current conflict.
 - ❖ Using third party mediator can act as a go-between, who transmits offers and messages, helps the groups to clarify their positions, presents each group's position more clearly to the other, and suggests some possible solutions that are not obvious to the opposing parties.

Structuring the interaction is especially useful in two situations: (a) when previous attempts to discuss conflict issues openly led to conflict escalation rather than to solution; and (b) when a respected third party is available to provide and enforce some structure in the interactions between the groups.

- **Bargaining:** Bargaining is the process of exchanging concessions until a compromise solution is reached. Bargaining can lead to the resolution of a conflict, but usually without much openness on the part of the groups involved and without much real problem solving. Typically, in bargaining, each side begins by demanding more than it really expects to get. Both sides realise that concessions will be necessary in order to reach a solution, but neither side wants to make the first move because it may be perceived

as a sign of weakness. Thus, each party signals a willingness to be flexible in exchanging concessions without actually making an explicit offer; a tacit proposal can be denied later if it fails to elicit a positive response from the other party. Bargaining continues until a mutually satisfactory agreement is reached, although such a solution can be reached without much open discussion of the conflict issues and without much effort to solve the underlying problems. Therefore, bargaining often results in a compromise agreement that fails to deal with the problem in a rational manner and is not in the long-term interests of either group.

For bargaining to be feasible at all as a conflict-resolution strategy, both parties must be of relatively equal power. Otherwise, one group simply will impose its will on the other, and the weaker group will have no means of obtaining concessions from the stronger one. Bargaining also is more likely to work if there are several acceptable alternatives that both groups are willing to consider. Otherwise, bargaining is likely to end in a deadlock.

Conflict-confrontation Strategies

- **Problem Solving:** Problem solving is an attempt to find a solution that reconciles or integrates the needs of both parties who work together to define the problem and to identify mutually satisfactory solutions. In problem solving, there is open expression of feelings as well as exchange of task-related information. The most critical ingredients in successful problem solving are summarised below:
 - ❖ Definition of the problem should be a joint effort based on shared fact finding rather than on the biased perceptions of the individual groups.
 - ❖ Problems should be stated in terms of specifics rather than as abstract principles.
 - ❖ Points of initial agreement in the goals and beliefs of both groups should be identified along with the differences.
 - ❖ Discussions between the groups should consist of specific, non-evaluative comments. Questions should be asked to elicit information, not to belittle the opposition.
 - ❖ The groups should work together in developing alternative solutions. If this is not feasible, each group should present a range of acceptable solutions rather than promoting the solution that is best for it while concealing other possibilities.
 - ❖ Solutions should be evaluated objectively in terms of quality and acceptability to both groups. When a solution maximises joint benefits but favours one party, some way should be found to provide special benefits to the other party to make the solution equitable.
 - ❖ All agreements about separate issues should be considered tentative until every issue is dealt with, because issues that are inter-related cannot be settled independently in an optimal manner.

There are two preconditions for successful, integrative problem solving. The first is a minimal level of trust between the groups: Without trust,

each group will fear manipulation and may not reveal its true preferences. Secondly, integrative problem solving takes a lot of time and can succeed only in the absence of pressure for a quick settlement. However, when the organisation can benefit from merging differing perspectives and insights of the warring groups in making key decisions, integrative problem solving is especially needed.

- **Organisational Redesign:** Redesigning or restructuring an organisation can be an effective, inter-group conflict resolution strategy. This is especially true when the sources of conflict result from the coordination of work among different departments or divisions. Unlike the other strategies discussed so far, you may note that organisational redesign can be used both to resolve the conflict and to stimulate it.

One way of redesigning organisations is to reduce task inter- dependence between groups and to assign each group clear work responsibilities (i.e., create self-contained work-groups) so as to reduce conflict. This is most appropriate when the work can be divided easily into distinct projects. Each group is provided with clear project responsibilities and the resources needed to reach its goals. A potential cost of this strategy is duplication and waste of resources, particularly when one group cannot fully utilise equipment or personnel. Innovation and growth may also be restricted to existing project areas, with no group having the incentive or responsibility to create new ideas.

The other way to deal with conflict through organisational redesign is to develop overlapping or joint work responsibilities (e.g., integrator roles). This helps in maximising the use of different perspectives and abilities of the different departments. However, as you have already seen, it also tends to create conflict. On the other hand, there may be tasks (e.g., developing new products) that do not fall clearly into any one department's responsibilities but require the contributions, expertise and coordination of many. In such a situation, assigning new- product development to one department could decrease potential conflict but at a high cost to the quality of the product. In this case, you might try to sustain task-based conflict but develop better mechanisms for managing the conflict. For example, providing "integrating teams" can facilitate communication and coordination between the members of the interdependent departments.

- **Preventing conflict is a proactive approach:** Prevention means anticipating potential causes of conflict and taking quick action to turn them into positive forces for better understanding and cooperation. Two strategies are suggested for prevention of conflicts:
 - Participative decision making in which everyone in a group may be involved to reduce conflict. The solution reached through participative decision making may be more acceptable and pragmatic.
 - Collaboration and team-building, which helps to change the potential causes of conflict into positive cooperation factors. The main emphasis should be on identifying common goals, recognising each other's strengths and planning strategies for achieving these goals by working together.

Activity 8:

In your utility, there is a conflict between the management and the staff association on the ratio of employees to be promoted in vacant positions to those to be recruited through open competition. The two parties differed markedly on the issue of proportion of promotees versus direct recruits.

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What strategy do you recommend to prevent potential conflict? You may like to contact a senior officer in the utility and know how the issue was managed? Compare that strategy with your recommended strategy.

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9.9 NEGOTIATION

Conflict is inevitable. No matter what the size of organisation is, conflicts prevail and affect each and every individual whether associated with conflict or not. We have already studied about conflicts, its dimensions and reasons of occurrence. This unit is a further extension in the field of conflict resolution. Negotiation spread through everyone in the organisation, whether be it employees, trade unions, management or other stakeholders. There is the obvious labour bargaining with management. The process of reaching at a mutual agreement by the two or more parties is called **Negotiation**. It is one of the most commonly used and beneficial skills that a manager can develop. The manager need to hone their negotiation skills keeping in mind the diversified workforce, rapidly changing environment, shift towards team and empowerment and Global business environment.

9.10 THE PROCESS OF NEGOTIATION

Lax, D.A., & Sebenius, J.K.(1986) in his research paper “ The manager as Negotiator” developed a thought that all negotiation share the same four following common elements. These are:

- The parties involved are in some way interdependent.
- The parties are in conflicts over goals and processes.
- The parties involved are motivated and capable of influencing one another.

- The parties believe they can reach an agreement.

These four elements came into picture at four different stages of the negotiation process presented below.

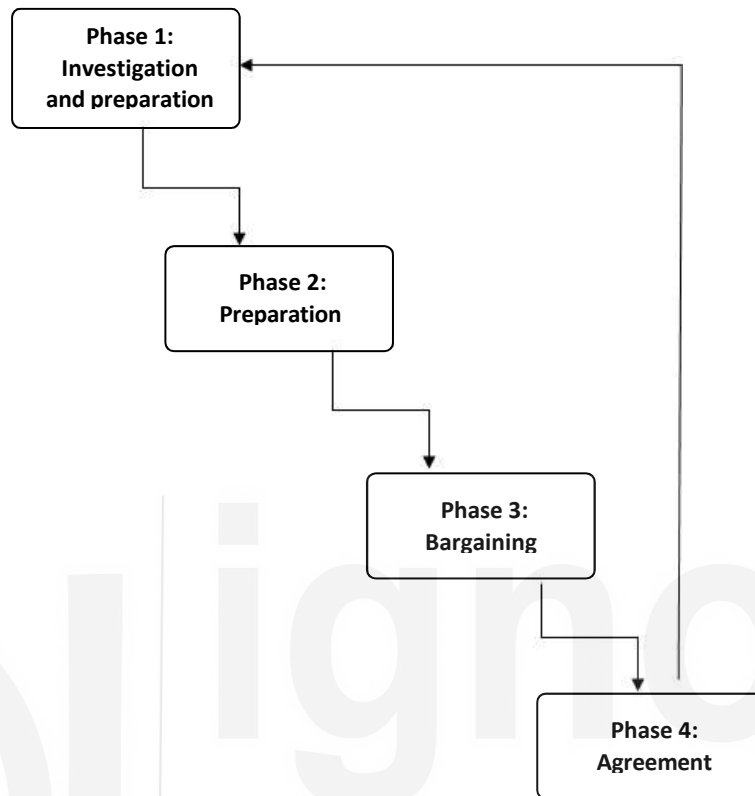


Figure 9.7: Styles of negotiation process

While most of the managers emphasize on bargaining and agreement as they are heart of negotiation, but many other managers and business people consider careful and thorough preparation and presentation in negotiation is also very crucial. Let's discuss about how above given charts works and what all these phases signifies.

Phase 1: Investigation and preparation: Means accumulation of various factual information about the issues and alternatives and gaining access to softer information other concerned party's interest, position, personality, and style.

Roger Fishr and William Ury conceived a phrase BATNA in their book *“Getting to Yes: Negotiating without giving in”*. **BATNA** is an acronym used for the “Best Alternative to a Negotiated Agreement.” This is one of the important parts of investigation and planning phase.

Considering your BATNA will help to decide whether to accept the offer or term for negotiation. For its careful selection what must know what all alternatives are available. Availability of various alternatives must be evaluated by thorough evaluation of proposed deals.

Your BATNA will help to eliminate unfavourable deal with the question like “Could you get a better outcome than the proposed deal?” On the other hand, if the deal is better than another outcome you could get (that is, better than your BATNA), then you should accept it.

The best negotiating position always occupied by the party with the best BATNA. Therefore exploring and experimentation of possible alternatives will definitely improve BATNA (Pinkley, R. L; 1995).

Box 9.1: BATNA Best Practices

- 1) Preparing list of various alternatives that may work if negotiation does not lead to favourable outcome.
- 2) Improve and work on various ideas and transform them into alternatives that can be accepted and worked upon.
- 3) Identify and keep best alternative to in reserves to be taken during the negotiation
- 4) Keep on working to update your BATNA to be in sync with the changing dynamics.
- 5) Don't reveal your BATNA to the other party. If your BATNA turns out to be worse than what the other party expected, their offer may go down.
- 6) Intense and careful preparation not only yields better outcome but also reduces chances of failure of negotiation.

Phase 2: Presentation: It means presentation of initial orders and demand either in writing or orally. Care should be adopted for choosing right words and self presentation to project the right image through effective verbal and non verbal communication.

Phase 3: Bargaining: Where managers tries to reach at a mutual agreement with the help of various negotiating strategies and tools. The manager should be concerned about facts and people. This thought can make his position stronger. Active listening, feedback, persuasion, and the various communication techniques and barriers all comes into this phase.

Phase 4: Agreement: It is the final and ultimate step where negotiation comes to an end. Here the agreement is finalised with the terms and conditions acceptable to both the parties.

The Figure 16.1 given above is very much self explanatory and signifies that negotiation process is continuous. Once an agreement is reached, negotiation over clarification and implementation are likely to continue. Moreover, one party can stop the negotiation process at any time, which may cause restarting of the process.

Activity 9:

Explain BATNA in your word citing examples.

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9.11 TYPES OF BARGAINING STRATEGIES

The most commonly used negotiation approaches are: Distributive bargaining and Integrative Bargaining, as propounded by R. Lewicki, D. Saunders, and B. Barry (2009). The following table summarises their goal, motivation, focus, interest and duration of relationship in a contrasting manner.

Table 9.3 Distributive versus Integrative Bargaining

Bargaining Characteristics	Distributive Bargaining	Bargaining Integrative
Goal	Get maximum of the share	Try to distribute share evenly so that both the parties are satisfied.
Motivation	Win-lose	Win-win
Focus	Position	Interest
Interest	Opposed	Congruent
Information Sharing	Low	High
Duration of Relationship	Short term	Long term

Distributive Bargaining: The basic feature of distributive bargaining is that it operates under Zero sum conditions. It is zero sum game i.e. the gain would be made at the expense of other and vice versa. Therefore the essence of distributive bargaining is that who gets what share of a set amount of goods and services to be divided up. When the amount is fixed or the gain in question is fixed, parties tend to bargain distributively.

The labour management negotiation over wages is an apt example of distributive bargaining. Here labour union representative try to negotiate to extract as much as possible as wages or money from management. Because every rupee that labour negotiates increases management's cost, each party is an opponent to each other trying to win and bargain aggressively. Distributive bargaining works like this. Each party has some aspirations level with some resistance point i.e. the point below which the party does not want to go or would break off the negotiation rather than accept less favourable decision. Both the parties have their aspiration level with a resistance point at an end. As long as there is some overlaps between each party's aspiration ranges, there exists a settlement range in which each one's aspirations can be met.

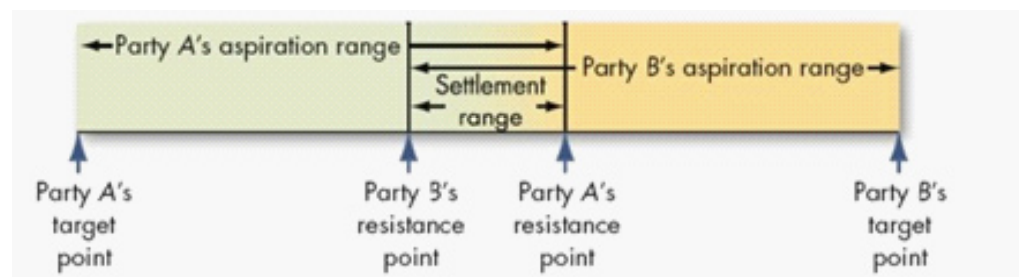


Exhibit 9.1: Staking out the Bargaining Zone

When one is engaged in distributive bargaining, one of the best things one can do is make the offer first and make it an aggressive one. Making offer first means that individual is powerful, would speak first in the meeting and thus would gain the advantage.

Integrative Bargaining: Integrative bargaining also known as interest based bargaining or win-win bargaining is a negotiation strategy that seeks to find

win- win solution of the dispute for both the parties. The strategy based on developing mutual benefit for the concerned parties. Needs, desire, concerns and fear are the most important reason why parties get into disputes.

Why Integrative bargaining is important for negotiation?

Integrative bargaining produces more satisfactory outcomes unlike distributive bargaining. Distributive bargaining outcomes are fixed, opposing viewpoints that may sometime lead to chaos and disagreement or no agreement at all. Integrative solutions are more gratifying and acceptable as needs and desires of both the parties are met to some extent. This is collaborative process therefore parties are more towards helping each other. This amicability reduces chaos and ill will. Instead, interest-based bargaining facilitates constructive, positive relationships between previous adversaries. The process of reaching at a negotiation under Distributive Bargaining (Positional Bargaining) and Integrative Bargaining is presented in figure 9.8.

9.12 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN NEGOTIATION EFFECTIVENESS

The most difficult question to answer is “are some people better negotiators than other?” Personality, mood or emotions, culture and gender are the most prominent factors that influence how effectively individual negotiates.

Personality Traits: Opponent’s negotiating tactics can be predicted to some extent if his personality is known. Personality and negotiation are related to each other but has weak relation. Agreeable or extravert negotiators are not successful in distributive bargaining. Extraverts are friendly and outgoing they like to reach on a cooperation and mutual consensus rather than to butt heads. These traits find a place in integrative negotiation but may emerge as liability when interests

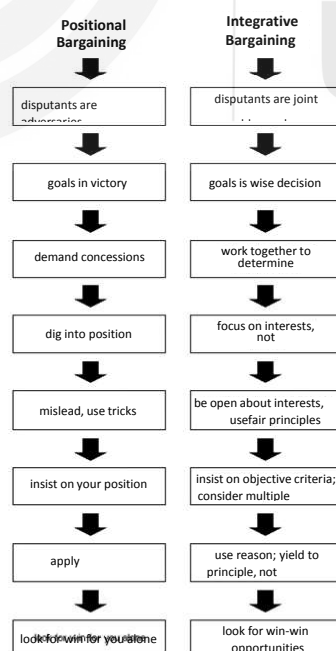


Figure 9.8: Positional Bargaining and Integrative Bargaining

Source: “Beyond Intractability.” Integrative or Interest-Based Bargaining | Beyond Intractability, www.beyondintractability.org/essay/interest-based-bargaining.

are opposed. Poor negotiators are usually not concerned about their own outcomes rather they are highly interested in having positive relationship with others. To avoid unpleasant conflicts these people plan to give in quickly and tend to be very anxious about disagreement even before negotiation starts.

B. Barry and R.A. Friedman (1998) propounded that intelligence predicts negotiation effectiveness, but as with personality, the effects are not especially strong.

Moods/emotions and negotiation: Moods and emotions do have influence on negotiation, but these moods and emotions depend on the type of negotiations. In distributive bargaining, negotiation for power, equal status with intense anger leads to better negotiation outcomes because their anger induces concessions from their opponents. Bargain can be done with more assertive and angry negotiations. People at lower level of job or with less power, Anger and assertiveness may end up with worse outcomes. Thus if you are boss negotiating with a peer or subordinate, displaying anger may help you but if you are an employee negotiating with a boss, it might hurt you (G.A. Gan Kleef and S.Cote, 2007).

Anxiety also may displace effect on the negotiation. For example M. Olekalns and P.L Smith, 2009) said that “ individuals who experienced more anxiety about a negotiation used more deceptions in dealing with other”. Another work suggested that anxious negotiators expect lower outcomes from negotiations, respond to offer more quickly, and exit the bargaining process more quickly, which leads them to obtain worse outcomes (A.W.Brooks and M.E Schweitzer, 2011).

Integrative negotiation on the other hand displays contrasting characteristics. Positive moods and emotions appear to lead to more integrative agreements (Higher level of joint benefits). This may happen because; positive mood leads to creativity (S.Kopelman, A.S.Rosette and L. Thompson, 2006).

Culture and Negotiations: With the emergence of globalisation, cross cultural negotiation finds its place. Negotiation is a summation of exchange, interaction and communication, culture's impact on this process is significant. Cultures do influence negotiation and knowing another party's culture allows intense and thorough preparation, clear presentations, better bargaining, and more effective agreement.

Managers from masculine culture are more assertive, independent and competitive. They focus on winning at all cost. Managers, who give more values to avoid uncertainty like china or Japan, will rely on bureaucratic rules and procedures while negotiating. On the other hand culture that are in ease with ambiguity like north America and Scandinavian will resort to free flowing discussion that may lead to creative solutions.

The power distance and individuality- collectivism also affect the negotiation process. Low power distance ensures free flowing of ideas and cooperation during negotiation whereas individualism is about self interest. Managers favouring collectivism give more value to building relationship essential for bargaining. Negotiators from individualistic culture impose their decisions on

others whereas negotiators from collectivistic culture seek to obtain group's input that may slow down the negotiation process.

While none of the cultural influence is right or wrong, but they add complexity, subtlety and confusion to an already complex process. Savvy and effective managers include culture in their preparation and other phases of negotiation to ensure that they meet their goals and those of the other person. Knowledge of culture at all level, including organisational culture, can help in negotiation.

Gender differences in Negotiations : There is contrasting study on gender differences in negotiation. A popular belief is that women are more cooperative and pleasant in negotiation than a man. The evidence does not support this belief.

There is relatively small differences that in comparison with women men have found to be negotiate better outcomes. It has been propounded that man and woman place unequal values on outcomes. Bowles, Badcock, and Lei in their paper titled "social incentives for gender differences in the propensity to initiative negotiations" founded that because women are expected to be "nice" and men "tough", women are penalised when they initiate negotiations. Evidences also show that Women's own attitude and behaviour hurt them in negotiations. In anticipation of negotiation women managers display less confidence than men. Women appear to be less satisfied with their performance afterward even if their performance is at par with their male counterparts. Women do not see ambiguity as an opportunity for negotiation than men do. Research also supports that women are less aggressive in negotiation because of fear of backlash from others. E.T. Amanatullah and M.W.Morris(2010) developed a thought that women are seen to be engaged in aggressive negotiation when they are bargaining on the behalf of someone else than when they are bargaining on their own behalf.

9.13 SITUATIONAL FACTOR OF NEGOTIATION

Success of negotiation basically depends of four major factors. These are: Location physical setting, time and audience (*Ashwatthapa, K, 2013*).

Location: With familiar location, negotiating parties feel more comfortable. Strategic benefit of familiar location helps in realising better negotiation. But increasingly, computer technology is making it possible for two distinct groups to negotiate without a location. However most of the time electronic media messages can be misinterpreted and may lead to escalation of conflicts if the parties are engage in flaming. Flaming is the act of sending emotionally charged messages (called flame mail) to others. This occurs because people can send e-mail messages before their emotions subside, whereas the sender of a traditional memo or letter would have time for second thoughts.

Physical settings: Sometimes physical setting that is physical distance and seating arrangements also plays a significant role in negotiation. The physical distance between two disputed parties can influence negotiation process and their orientation towards each other. There are more chances to developing win lose orientation if people sit face to face.

Time Passage and Deadlines: Time passage and deadline can help in reaching better negotiation outcomes. The more time spent in negotiation the stronger and better commitment to reaching an agreement. This increases the motivation to resolve conflict, but it also fuels commitment to a stated position.

Time deadlines are useful and effective to the extent they generate motivation among parties to complete negotiations. This time deadline may prove to be liability to an organisation if a cost is associated with exceeding the deadline. Negotiators make concessions and soften their demands more rapidly as the deadlines approach.

Audience Characteristics: Negotiators generally have audiences- anyone who has a stake in the negotiation process and its outcome, such as senior management, other team members or the general public. Negotiation may act differently when their audience are more interested in detailed negotiation information rather than just end results. When the audience are more interested and has direct surveillance over the negotiation proceeding, the negotiators tend to be more competitive, less willing to make concessions and more likely to engage in political tactics against the other party. With their audience watching, negotiators also have more interest in saving face. Sometimes audience are drawn into the negotiations by acting as a source of indirect appeals. The general public often takes on this role when groups negotiate with governments (Ashwatthapa, 2013; Mcshane and Glinow, 2000).

Activity 10:

Identify Different Factors that are vital for negotiation and Justify.

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9.14 ETHICS AND NEGOTIATION

There are numbers of ethical dilemmas attached to negotiating to get what you want. Should there be no falsification or should always tell the truth? Should you be upfront and reveal your game plan? What you can ethically not tell or can reveal? These difficult questions and dilemmas every organisation deals with whether it is formal or informal one. Lewicki, R.J.(1983) gave few ethical violations to avoid. And these are more serious and progressive. These are:

Selective Disclosure: Negotiators highlights positive information and downplay or fail to mention negative information.

Misrepresentation: Most of the time negotiators misstate facts and information or their position. For example, they misrepresent the lowest price they are willing to accept.

Deception and Lying: Negotiators give the other party factually incorrect information or information that leads to incorrect assumptions or conclusions.

False threat and false promises: negotiators provide misinformation about actions that they may take and concessions they may be willing to make.

Inflict direct or indirect harm: Negotiators intentionally sabotage the other party's chance of success.

Negotiation may encounter any of these violations. The most severe violations are the last two i.e. False information and inflicting harm. How a negotiator ranks the others depends on his values and morals and in some cases his culture.

The following table provides tips for monitoring your own ethics

Table 9.4: Monitoring Ethics

Advice	Description
Learn from your mistakes	Everybody has violated ethics. One should learn from them and try not to repeat them.
Do you like what you see?	Evaluate your own behaviour and strategies. Are you proud of yourself? Do you like your behaviour and attitude?
What does the other person see?	Consider how you appear to the other party or to an observer. Are you projecting a right image? Do you like what you are projecting of yourself?

9.15 THIRD PARTY NEGOTIATIONS

So far we have discussed about bargaining as the direct negotiation. Sometimes situations are so complex and tedious that individuals or group representatives are unable to resolve their differences through bargaining or direct negotiations. Then the ultimate solution that can bring agreement and coherence is "Third Party Negotiation". There are three basic third party roles most prevalent to reach negotiations. These are: Mediators, Arbitrators and Conciliators.

Let's discuss about these one by one.

Mediator: This is the third person not associated with any of the concerned parties who facilitates negotiation using his ability of persuasion, suggestion, reasoning, suggesting alternatives etc. Mediators are mostly used in labour management negotiation and in civil court disputes. They are very effective and impressive and highly recommended for negotiations. Their success rate is about 60 percent with 75 percent negotiator satisfaction. According to the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "Mediation gives the parties the opportunity to discuss the issues raised in the charge, clear up misunderstandings, determine the underlying interests or concerns, find areas of agreement and, ultimately, to incorporate those areas of agreements into resolutions. A mediator does not resolve the charge or impose a decision on the parties. Instead, the mediator helps the parties to agree on a mutually acceptable resolution. The mediation process is strictly confidential." (The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2007). Mediators are advantageous as they help both the party to develop their solutions, resolve issues that are significant for both the parties and sometimes mediators solve the conflict even if no resolution is reached.

There are few disadvantages of mediators like here conflict intensity is not very high. This type of method is useful for negotiation when moderate level of conflict is there. At the same time perception of the mediator plays an important role in finding solutions. The mediator must be neutral and non coercive to be effective.

Arbitrator: Arbitrator is a third party possessing authority to dictate an agreement. There are mainly two types of arbitrator. Voluntary arbitrator; requested by the parties and compulsory arbitrator; enforced by the law or tribunals on the concerned parties. The effectiveness and success rate of arbitrator is comparatively higher than mediators. Arbitration always results in settlement. On the other hand its success may appear heavily on any of the disputed parties. As the decision here is more enforced the dispute may arise at a later time if any of the party is left dissatisfied.

It is common to see mediation followed by arbitration. An alternative technique is to follow the arbitration with mediation. The format of this conflict resolution approach is to have both sides formally make their cases before an arbitrator. The arbitrator then makes a decision and places it in a sealed envelope. Following this, the two parties work through mediation. If they are unable to reach an agreement on their own, the arbitration decisions become binding. Researchers using this technique found that it led to voluntary agreements between the two parties.

Conciliator: A trusted third party providing informal communication link between the negotiator and the opponent. Robert Duval made this role famous in his film “Godfather”. Mediation and conciliation overlap each other in a great deal therefore it is difficult to compare success of each of these strategies. Practically conciliator not merely works as a communication channels. They also find facts, decode messages, seek necessary information and try to persuade disputants to reach on a consensus.

9.16 THE GANDHIAN APPROACH TO CONFLICT RESOLUTION AND INTEGRATION

Several social activists and noble prize winner are deeply influenced by the Gandhi’s View of practicing major pubic conflicts and conflict theories. Gandhi’s approach of Satyagraha during independence movements has been seen as Gandhian approach to conflict resolution. Humanistic values as a source of Conflict and negotiation were majorly adopted by Gandhi. His writings presented three levels of norms that were derived from Indian traditional wisdom

The first level of norms relates to goals and conflicts:

- Act now, here, for your own group goals, and out of conviction.
- Define the conflict well by stating goals clearly, try to understand the opponent’s goals, emphasize common and compatible goals, and state the conflict-relevant facts objectively.
- Have a positive approach to the conflict and look at it as an opportunity to meet the opponent, as an opportunity to transform the society, and as an opportunity to transform the self.

The second level of norms relates to conflict struggle and process:

- Act nonviolently in conflicts, i.e., do not harm or hurt with words, deeds, or thoughts; do not damage property; prefer violence to cowardice; do good even to the evildoer.
- Act in a goal-consistent manner by being constructive, acting openly rather than secretly.
- Do not to cooperate with the evil (evil structures, status, and action or those who cooperate with the evil).
- Be willing to sacrifice (by not escaping from the punishment and by willing to die if necessary).
- Do not polarize the situation by distinguishing between antagonisms and antagonists, between persons and status. One should maintain contact with opponents, have empathy for their position, and be flexible in defining parties and positions.
- Do not to escalate the conflict; remain loyal, do not provoke the opponent, do not allow oneself to be provoked, do not humiliate, and do not allow oneself to be humiliated.

The third and final level of norms relates to conflict resolution:

- Resolve conflicts by seeking negotiation, positive social transformation, and the transformation of both the self and the opponent.
- Insist on essentials rather than nonessentials, i.e., do not trade with essentials and be willing to compromise on nonessentials.
- See oneself as fallible, admit your mistakes, and maintain consistency over time.
- Be generous with opponents, do not exploit their weaknesses, do not judge them harder than yourself, and trust them.
- Finally, aim for conversion rather than coercion; seek the solutions that can be accepted by both you and the opponent; never coerce the opponent; convert the opponent into a believer of the cause, or be open to convert yourself.

The Gandhian conflict process goes well beyond conflict resolution to integration (or transformation) at a deeper level, the achievement of self-realization. For the Mahatma, the fundamental principle was that of the unity of existence (or more immediately, the unity of humans). People are related to each other in a way that has a transcendental nature, and a conflict should be seen as a gift providing a rich opportunity, potentially to the benefit of all and to realize a higher self.

9.17 AVOIDING COMMON MISTAKES IN NEGOTIATION

Failing to Negotiate/Accepting the First Offer: Some of the people do believe that negotiation is a conflict situation and hence try to avoid this. Research

findings have demonstrated that this kind of conflict avoidance is most prevalent among female workforce. For example, one study looked at students from Carnegie- Mellon who were getting their first job after earning a master's degree. The study found that only 7% of the women negotiated their offer, while men negotiated 57% of the time (CNN, 2003). The result had profound consequences. Researchers calculate that people who routinely negotiate salary increases will earn over \$1 million more by retirement than people who accept an initial offer every time without asking for more.

Letting Your Ego Get in the Way: Putting more values for yourself and thinking about oneself can prove to be disadvantageous. People from united state are more egoistic and self centred. This narcissistic behaviour may add no value to the negotiation process. Instead, think about why the other person would want to accept the deal. Help them meet their goals while you achieve yours. Integrative outcomes depend on having good listening skills. A good business relationship can only be created and maintained if both parties get a fair deal.

Having Unrealistic Expectations: Susan Podziba, a professor of mediation at Harvard and MIT, plays broker for some of the toughest negotiations around, from public policy to marital disputes. She takes an integrative approach in the negotiations, identifying goals that are large enough to encompass both sides. As she puts it, "We are never going to be able to sit at a table with the goal of creating peace and harmony between fishermen and conservationists. But we can establish goals big enough to include the key interests of each party and resolve the specific impasse we are currently facing. Setting reasonable goals at the outset that address each party's concerns will decrease the tension in the room, and will improve the chances of reaching an agreement." (Rothenberger, C, 2008).

Getting Overly Emotional: Negotiators who display anger during negotiation negotiate worse than who do not (Kopelman, S., Rosette, A. S., & Thompson, L, 2006). and that during online negotiations, those parties who encountered anger were more likely to compete than those who did not (Friedman, R., Anderson, C., Brett, J., Olekalns, M., Goates, N., & Lisco, C. C, 2004). In a study of online negotiations, words such as despise, disgusted, furious, and hate were related to a reduced chance of reaching an agreement (Brett, J. M., Olekalns, M., Friedman, R., Goates, N., Anderson, C., & Lisco, C. C., 2007).

Letting Past Negative Outcomes Affect the Present Ones: Research shows that negotiators who had previously experienced ineffective negotiations were more likely to have failed negotiations in the future. Those who were unable to negotiate some type of deal in previous negotiation situations tended to have lower outcomes than those who had successfully negotiated deals in the past (O'Connor, K. M., Arnold, J. A., & Burris, E. R., 2005). The key to remember is that there is a tendency to let the past repeat itself. Being aware of this tendency allows you to overcome it. Be vigilant to examine the issues at hand and not to be overly swayed by past experiences, especially while you are starting out as a negotiator and have limited experiences. With this we end the discussion and summarise the contents of the unit.

9.18 SUMMARY

- **Conflict** is a process which begins when one party perceives that the other party is making some conscious efforts to frustrate it in pursuing its interests or goals.
- There are three different views on conflict – **traditionalist**, **behaviouralist** and **interactionist**. The current view of conflict is that it is inevitable, but desirable. Depending upon the nature, intensity, duration and the way it is handled, it could be functional leading to higher goal attainment or dysfunctional leading to goal failure.
- Conflicts are of many **types**: Inter-group, intra-individual, interpersonal, inter-group and between organisations.
- **Conflict process** has four stages: potential antagonism, cognition and personalisation, conflictive and conflict-coping behaviour, and conflict aftermath.
- Conflict may result from competition for limited resources, diversity of goals of different units, task inter-dependence of different units, differences in values and perception etc. which are always present in an organisation as the antecedent condition for most of the conflicts.
- There are different modes of managing conflict in an organisation. When a work-group shows the symptoms of over-emphasising conformity, compromise, consensus, popularity etc., there may be need for stimulating conflicts by manipulating communication channels, organisation structure and personal behaviour of the manager.
- There are four distinct **strategies of conflict resolution**. While avoidance and defusion strategies allow little or no conflict into the open, containment and confrontation strategies deal with the conflict more openly and thoroughly. If the conflict arises from a trivial issue and/or must be resolved quickly, a conflict-avoidance or conflict-defusion strategy is most likely to be effective. If the conflict centres around an important work issue and does not need to be solved in a short period of time, a conflict-containment or conflict-confrontation strategy is most likely to be effective.
- Negotiation occurs in the process of conflict resolution. Location, Physical setting, time passage, and audience characteristics influence negotiation. Make sure you set aggressive negotiating goals and try to find creative ways to achieve the objectives of both the parties, especially when you value the long term relationship with the other party. That does not mean sacrificing your self-interest: rather, it means trying to find creative solutions that gives both parties what they really want.

9.19 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. List the sources of conflict. Give examples from your experiences.
2. Can conflict be functional or useful? Illustrate your response with an example.

3. Discuss the models of conflict process with examples.
4. Explain various conflict management styles and their appropriateness from your work place. Which of these styles is/are more effective in your context?
5. Conflict does not exist until it is recognised by the parties involved. Do you agree with this statement? If so, why?
6. What do you mean by negotiation?
7. Differentiate between Distributive and Integrative Bargaining.
8. How do individual differences of personality and gender influences negotiation?
9. What are roles and functions of Third party Negotiations?

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UNIT 10 JOB STRESS

Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to:

- Understand the dynamics of executive stress, both functional and dysfunctional aspects of stress
- Plan to cope with stress

Structure

- 10.1 What is Stress?
- 10.2 Understandign stress in organisations
- 10.3 Types of Stress
- 10.4 Knowing Stress Management Techniques
- 10.5 Burnout and Rustout
- 10.6 Coping with Stress
- 10.7 Summary
- 10.8 Self Assessment Questions
- 10.9 Further Reading/ References

10.1 WHAT IS STRESS?

The origin of the concept of stress predates antiquity. Selye has defined stress as: “the non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it”. The concept of stress has been borrowed from the natural sciences. During the 18th and 19th century, stress was equated with “force, pressure or strain” exerted up on a material object or person which resists these forces and attempts to maintain its original state. The use of the concept in this fashion encouraged physicists and engineers into adopting it to suit their ends. Thus, stress in engineering is known as “the ration of the internal force brought into play when a substance is distorted to the area over which the force act”.

The term stress has been used variously to refer to (1) stimulus (external force acting on the organism), (2) response (changes in physiological functions), (3) interaction (interaction between an external force and the resistance opposed to it, as in biology), and (4) more comprehensive combination of the above factors.

Stress as External Force

The external force approach to the phenomenon of stress focuses on the circumstances which people experience as stressful. Stress is treated as an independent variable, more or less beyond the control of the individual. According to Weitz the stressful stimuli are:

Speed-up information processing

Noxious environmental stimuli

Perceived threat

Disrupted psychological function

Isolation and confinement

Blocking

Group pressures, and

Frustrations

Psychological Function

Stress is considered as a response to a situation which demands that the individual adapt to a change physically or psychologically.

Proposed the theory of ‘General Adaptation Syndrome’, which states that when an organism is confronted with a threat the general physiological response occurs in three stages:

Alarm Reaction: The first stage includes an initial “shock phase” in which resistance is lowered, and a “countershock phase” in which defensive mechanisms become active.

Alarm Reaction is characterized by autonomous excitability; adrenalin discharge; increased heart rate; muscle tone, and blood content; and gastro-intestinal ulceration. Depending on the nature and intensity of threat and the conditions of the organism, the periods of resistance is lowered, and a “countershock phase” in which defensive mechanisms become active.

Alarm Reaction is characterized by autonomous excitability; adrenalin discharge; increased heart rate; muscle tone, and blood content; and gastro-intestinal ulceration. Depending on the nature and intensity of threat and the conditions of the organism, the periods of resistance vary and the severity of symptoms may differ from a mild invigoration of disease of adaption.

Stage of Resistance: Maximum adaption occurs during this stage. The bodily signs characteristic of the alarm reaction disappear. Resistance increase to levels above normal. If the stressor persists, or the defensive reaction proves ineffective, the organism deteriorates to the next stage.

Stage of Exhaustion: Adaption energy is exhausted, signs of alarm reaction reappear, and resistance level begins to decline irreversibly. The organism collapses.

A diagrammatic view of these stages is shown in Figure 1.

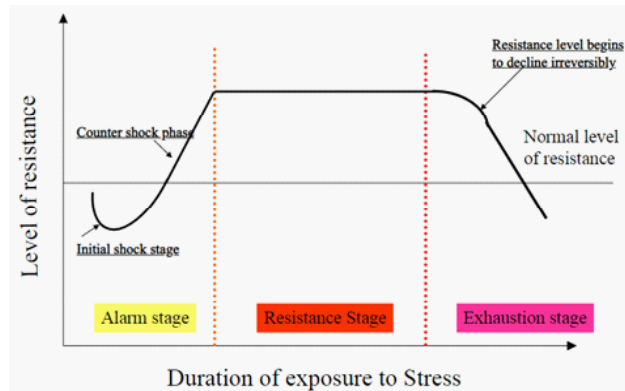


Figure 10.1: Stages of psychological function

One of the major shortcomings of this theory is that the related research was carried out on infra-human subjects, where the stressors are usually physical or environmental- and this is not always the case in relation to human organisms.

Interactive Approach: According to this approach stress is looked upon as an interactional outcome of the external demand and internal resources. McGrath explains, “there is a potential for stress when an environmental, situation is perceived as presenting a demand which threatens to exceed the person’s capacities and resources for meeting it, under condition where he has expected a substantial differential in the rewards and costs from meeting the demand versus not meeting it.”

Comprehensive Approach: This approach views stress not only in interactive terms but also as an individual phenomenon peculiar to the individual and his environment. It is seen as the situational outcome.

10.2 UNDERSTANDING STRESS

Stress is an important feature in organizational behavior. It is a word that we use all the time. And most often we interpret stress to be the most unpleasant fact of life. The word stress is derived from the latin word strictus, which means tight or narrow. Hans Selye gave the concept of General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) in 1936 which was later renamed as ‘stress response’. Selye (1976) defines stress as ‘a state manifested by a syndrome which consists of all non specifically induced changes in a biologic system’. GAS model involves three stages, namely, *Alarm reaction*, *Stage of resistance*, and *Stage of exhaustion*.

According to Quick, et al (1997), stress or the stress response is the unconscious preparation to fight or flee that a person experiences when faced with any demand. Stress is also defined as psychological, physical reaction to certain life events or situations. It is a process that begins with life events or situation. If we put it simply, anything that involves ‘change’ creates stress. These life events are called as *stressors*. Thus, a stressor or demand can be a person, or event that triggers stress response. Examples can be an appointment with the doctor, wedding, job interview, making a speech, and so forth. These situations are perceived to be stressful. Blood pressure, perspiration, high heart rate, stiffness in body, is few ways in which the body responds. These physical reactions are

called ‘stress reactivity’. But if these physical reactions occur for a longer time, beyond the tolerance limit of the body, then negative physical or psychological consequences may result (Greenberg, 2011) and these consequences are called as strains. In other words, ‘distress’ or ‘strain’ refers to the adverse psychological, physical, behavioural, organizational consequences that may occur as a result of stressful events.

A particular event might not be stressful to you, but might be stressful to the other person. Thus, stress is subjective. Also, not all stress is bad. Stress resulting in positive energy and enhanced performance and health is called as ‘eustress’ (eu-means that something that is proper) or positive stress. On experiencing the stressors, the feeling is of challenge and achievement. An example of positive stress is the anxiety before taking a test. If there is no anxiety, then you might also be not motivated to study and take the test. Thus, some stress is always helpful and this is known as ‘optimal level of arousal’ or Inverted –U theory. Too much arousal or having little arousal will result in low performance, while as moderate level of arousal will result in peak performance. This optimal level of arousal differs from one person to the other. The Figure below shows the relationship between stress (pressure) and performance.



Figure 10.2: Relationship between Stress and Performance

‘Distress’ or ‘negative stress’ occurs when there is too much stress that the person cannot endure and cope and nothing is done to mitigate its effects. The events have a harmful effect. Thus, the situation becomes demanding with no or little control over the situation is perceived. For example, last attempt for a job interview. Hence, negative stress is experienced when there is an imbalance between stressors (demands) placed on us and our ability to meet those demands. Here it is important to make a distinction between eustress and distress. For example, an interesting finding of a study on 1800 managers in U.S. there amount of eustress had no relationship to job satisfaction or to move to other organizations. On the other hand, managers with high level of distress were less satisfied with their jobs and made attempts to find a new job than did managers with low distress level.

Other related concepts are *hypostress* and *hyperstress*. The former indicates insufficient stress due to lack of stimulation. For example, a person feels monotony in the current job since there is no challenging work. The latter term refers to excessive stress when events (including positive events) pile up and stretch the limits of the person’s adaptability. Role overload can be a cause of hyperstress.

10.3 TYPES OF STRESS

There are three types of stress: (1) Psychological stressors, (2) Organisational Stressors, and (3) Societal Stressors.

Psychological Stressors

Since stress is a dynamic state within an organism in response to a demand for adaption and since life itself entails constant adaptation, living creatures are always in a state of more or less stress.

The linkages as psychosocial variables evoke stress response that may ultimately to the organism than aversive event itself. Psychological stressors may precede the physical event, last longer, and continue to evoke stress after physical event is past.

Internal demands that challenge or suppress one's ability to adapt to them are likely to result in an interpretation of the demands as being stressful.

Lazarus and Cohen have suggested three general categories of stressors-cataclysmic phenomena, individual crises and daily hassels. Cataclysmic phenomena refers to a group of stressors resulting from sudden, unique and powerful single events or clusters of related events affecting large number of people, e.g., natural disasters etc. The second group include those events that challenge adoptive abilities in the same way as cataclysmic phenomena but affect fewer people e.g., the death of a dear one.

The third group namely daily hassels refers to those stable and repetitive problems encountered in daily life that typically do not present great adoptive difficulty, e.g., interpretation of the nature of one's daily work.

Activity 1

People have different feelings about their roles. Statement describing some such feelings are given below. Read each statement and indicate in the space on the left how often you have the feeling expressed in the statement in relation to your role in your organisation. Use the numbers given below to indicate your own feelings.

If you find that the category to be used in answering does not adequately indicate your own feelings, use the one which is closest to the way you feel.

- 1) My role tends to interfere with my family life.
- 2) I am afraid I am not learning enough in my present role for taking up higher responsibility.
- 3) I am not able to satisfy the conflicting demands of various people over me.
- 4) My role has recently been reduced in importance.
- 5) My workload is too heavy.
- (6) Other role occupants do not give enough attention and time to my role.

- (7) I do not have adequate knowledge to handle the responsibilities in my role.
- (8) I have to do things in my role that are against my better judgement.
- (9) I am not clear on the scope and responsibilities of my role (job).
- (10) I do not get information needed to carry out responsibilities assigned to me.

Organisational stressors

Organisational membership is a dominant source of stress. The concept of organizational stress first evolved in the classic work of Kahn et.al. They were the earliest to draw attention to organisational stress in general and role stress in particular.

Pareek pioneered work on role stress by identifying as many as ten different types of organisational role stresses. They are describe here briefly:

- 1) **Inter-role Distance (IRD)** is experienced when there is a conflict between the organisational role and non-organisational roles. For example, the role of an executives versus the role of a husband.
- 2) **Role Stagnation (RS)**: This kind of stress is the result of gap between demand to outgrow his previous role and to occupy new role effectively. It is the feeling of being stuck in the same role. Such a a type of stress results into perception that there is no opportunity for one's career progression.
- 3) **Role Expectation Conflict (REC)**: This type of stress is generated by different expectations by different significant persons about the same role; and the role occupant is ambivalent as to whom to please.
- 4) **Role Erosion (RE)**: This type of role stress is the function of the role occupants feeling that some functions which should properly be belonging to is role are transferred to/or performed by some other role. This can also happen when the functions are performed by the role occupant but the credit for them goes to someone else.
- 5) **Role Overload (RO)**: When the role occupant feels that there are too many expectations from the significant roles in this role set, and experiences role overload. There are two aspects of this stress, quantitative and qualitative. The former refers to having too much to do, while latter refers to too difficult.
- 6) **Role Isolation (RI)**: This type of role stress refers to psychological distance between the occupants role and other roles in the same role set. It is also defined as role distance which is different from inter-role distance, in the sense that IRD refers to the distance among various roles occupied by the same individual, role isolation is characterised by the feelings that others do not reach out easily, indicative of the absence of strong linkages of one's role with other roles.
- 7) **Personal Inadequacy (PI)**: This type of stress arises when the role occupant feels that he/she does not have the necessary skills and training

for effectively performing the functions expected from one's role. This is found to happen when the organizations do not impart periodic training to enable the employees to cope with the fast changes both within and outside the organisation.

- 8) **Self - Role Distance (SRD)**: When the role person occupies goes against his self-concept, then feels self-role distance type of stress. This is essentially a conflict arising out of mismatch between the person and the job.
- 9) **Role Ambiguity (RA)**: It refers to the lack of clarity about the expectations of role which may arise out of lack of information or understanding. It may exist in relation to activities, responsibilities, personal styles, and norms and may operate at three stages.
 - a) When the role sender holds the expectations about the role.
 - b) When it is sent, and
 - c) When the occupant receives those expectations.
- 10) **Resource Inadequacy (RIn)**: This type of stress is evident when the role occupant feels that he/she is not provided with adequate resources for performing the functions expected from one's role.

Activity 1 (continued)

The ten statements in Activity 1 are taken from Pareek's instrument containing 50 items. These represent the ten role stresses, in order (IRD, RS, REC, RE, RO, RI, SRD, RA, RIn). Look at your answers. The higher the score, the more role stress you have of that type (0 is absence of stress, and 4 very high stress). Reflect on scores which are high in your case.

Sometimes the society in which the individual lives, also creates stress. Every culture teaches people what to define as stressful, what to interpret as a minor adjustment. Even such a profound experience as the death of an infant can have different meaning. For an Indian couple, if their infant dies, it will be one of the most shattering, stressful events they will ever experience. But for an Australian aborigine, the death of an infant merely postpones the day it will enter the human family. This tribe of people believe that the soul of an infant merely returns to the common world of spirits, to avail a better time to be born.

Similarly, what happens in our families brings great joy as well as the most intense forms of stress. Conflict between husband and wife, arguments with teenage children; failing health of a parent, adjusting to new schools, feeling isolated in a new neighbourhood, and death of a family member can all bring unrelieved stress. Family pressures inevitably affect one's life at work and vice versa.

Beyond the family and one's life at work, all of us are connected to the wider social and physical environment. The government raises taxes and we feel the pinch. Gas shortage occurs and we have to wait in long lines. All of us encounter such short-term stresses that come from the wider environment: impersonal, beyond our control, yet they can invade our lives and create unrelieved stress.

10.4 KNOWING STRESS MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

As we have understood till now, stress is an inevitable feature of our personal and work life. All stress is not bad and negative and it can be prevented and managed. First of all, we should be self-aware and learn to recognize the first symptoms of distress in ourselves. Secondly, stress management techniques should be focused to prevent and manage stress at individual level and at organizational level. Now in this section, let us discuss various strategies to prevent and manage stress.

I) Personal strategies to prevent and manage stress.

- 1) **Work-life Balance:** One of the most important mechanisms to manage stress and improve coping with it is to strike a balance between personal life and work life. The balancing act will affect our physical and psychological well-being and will help us to cope up with the demands, challenges, and various stresses at personal level and at work place. It has been observed that the people whose life revolves around work related issues, experience more stress. Working continuously is unhealthy for physical and mental health. There might be chances where a person has to devote extra time or sacrifice some personal time, but the same should not be practiced for long-term approach. This is not productive at the personal as well as organizational level.
- 2) **Positive mindset and Resilience:** How we respond to a potentially stressful situation depends on the mindset that the person is having. Positive attitude alters our subjective experiences of stress when it occurs. Positive thinking can be learned overtime. Negative thinking or pessimism is found to be related to depression, physical problems, and low levels of achievement. As Martin Seligman, father of Positive Psychology uses the term **PERMA** and says 'our cognitive appraisal of a situation influences whether or not we will experience it as stressful'. *PERMA* refers to *Positive emotion, Engagement, Positive relationships, Meaning, and Accomplishment*. Learned optimism is one of the five dimensions of Positive Organizational Behaviour. The others are self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, subjective well-being, and hope.

If the person is able to develop resilience then s/he may actually adapt, learn and change and become more adaptive in the process. Realistic optimism and strong sense of values that help in setting priorities, also enhances resilience. Self –awareness in this process is very critical. Correct and realistic assessment of strengths, weaknesses, and evaluating our goals in light of this is the most important aspect.

- 3) **Social support:** It is one of the mediating factors of how people cope with stress. Social support acts as a buffer to many types of stressors, especially at workplace. Laughter and positive humour at workplace has been associated with positive emotions, low stress and enhancement of productivity. Social support system provides emotional caring, information, feedback, support and mentoring.

- 4) **Time Management:** It is one of the most significant strategies to prevent stress. One should manage time effectively, thereby setting priorities and accomplishing goals and commitments. The symptoms of poor time management are missing deadlines, constant rush, insufficient rest time and indecisiveness. If a person is able to manage time, then s/he can track her/his accomplishments and avoid unnecessary confusion and stress at the last hour.
- 5) **Coping skills:** Refers how to deal with the conflict. One should try to improve coping skills by focusing on what the person can change and control, instead of focusing on what one cannot change.
- 6) **Leisure Time Activities:** Such activities should help in reducing stress. Leisure activities should promote joy, spontaneity and connectedness with significant others and nature.
- 7) **Physical Exercise:** Aerobic exercises are found to be positively correlated-improvement in person's responsiveness to stressful activities. Flexibility training also helps in reducing unnecessary muscular tension that accrues because of distress.
- 8) **Diet:** Good dietary practices help in reducing stress. Food with high sugar content, and foods high in cholesterol, alters the blood chemistry and hence make her/him vulnerable to stress.
- 9) **Professional Help:** Person should be able to identify the symptoms at the earliest, and thus, early detection of strain symptoms, along with professional help will help in preventing physical and psychological damage. A person may have the markers like, loss of appetite or increased appetite, loss of sleep or oversleeping, and mood swings that are indicative to seek professional help.

II) Organizational Strategies to prevent and manage Stress

- 1) **Job Redesign:** Redesigning jobs is important so that employee needs are taken care off and some sources of stress are reduced. An increase in worker control will help in reducing stress at organizational level; most common is job decision latitude. Another benefit of job redesign is to reduce uncertainty and increase predictability at workplace.
- 2) **Goal Settings:** This strategy is designed to enhance task motivation. It helps in focusing a person's attention and helps in channelizing energy into productive way.

Activity 2

- a) Differentiate between stress, distress and strain

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b) Discuss the relationship between stress and performance

Job Stress

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c) Describe the individual and organizational stress preventive methods

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10.5 BURNOUT AND RUSTOUT

All gainful activities classified as work or job are fraught with some risk of stress. Paine has observed: “Burnout Stress Syndrome” (BOSS), the consequence of a high level of job stress, personal frustration and inadequate coping skills have major personal, organizational and social costs – and these costs are probably increasing”.

BOSS is a debilitating psychological condition brought about by unrelieved work stress. Four types of consequences can arise from it:

- Depletion of energy reserves
- Lowered resistance to illness
- Increased dissatisfaction and pessimism
- Increased absenteeism and inefficiency at work
- Honeymoon
- Fuel shortage chronic symptoms
- Crisis, and
- Hitting the wall

Honeymoon Stage: In the honeymoon stage there is euphoric feeling of encounter with the new job. There is excitement, enthusiasm, pride and challenges. Dysfunctional features emerge in two ways. Firstly, the energy resources are gradually depleted in coping with the demands of a challenging environment. Secondly habits and strategies for coping with stress are formed in this stage which are often not useful in coping with later challenges.

Fuel Shortage Stage: In an attempt to deal with job-related crisis, some individuals overdraw on reserves of adaptation energy reserves and realize too late that the energy reserves are limited. In this stage, there is a vague feelings of loss, fatigue and confusion. The symptoms are job dissatisfaction, inefficiency, fatigue and sleep disturbance, leading to escape activities such as increased eating, drinking and smoking. Future difficulties are signaled at this stage.

Chronic Symptom Stage: The physiological symptoms become more pronounced and demand attention and help at this stage. Common symptoms are chronic exhaustion, physical illness, anger and depression.

Crisis Stage: When these feelings and physiological symptoms persist over a period of time, the individual enters the stage of crisis. He feels oppressed there is a heightened pessimism and self-doubting tendency is ascendant. One develops an “escape mentality”. Peptic ulcers, tension headaches, chronic backache, high blood pressure and difficulty in sleeping are some of the better known symptoms of the crisis period. They may become acute.

Hitting the Wall Stage: The phrase “hitting the wall” is taken from athletics. It is said that a marathon actually begins at the “twenty mile mark with six miles to go”. It is at this point that a marathon runner feels that he has hit the wall. It is an experience so devastating that it can completely knock a person out. The body temperature shoots up to 106.0 F – 107.0 F with an accompanying loss of blood volume. This leads to muscle paralysis, dizziness, fainting and even complete collapse. Similar experiences have been observed in executive world at times. With all the adaptation energy depleted, one may lose control over one’s life, it may be the end of a professional career.

Stress is like electric power. It can make a bulb light up and provide brilliant illumination. However, if the voltage is higher than what the bulb takes, it can burn out the bulb. The phenomenon of burnout is the harmful effect of stress resulting in loss of effectiveness. Burnout can be defined as the end result of stress experienced; but not properly coped, resulting in symptoms of exhaustion, irritation, ineffectiveness, inaction, discounting self and others, and problems of health (hypertension, ulcers, and heart problems/ailments). Pareek has suggested the opposite phenomenon of glow-up which occurs when stress is properly channeled, resulting in the feeling of challenge, high job satisfaction, creativity, effectiveness, better adjustment to work and life.

Generally roles requiring continuous work with people (teachers, trainers, salesmen, personnel roles) experience burnout more than roles requiring less contact with people. Highly routine and mechanical roles produce burnout. The amount of stress experienced (dis-stress, experienced as a source of irritation) also contributing to burnout.

Some personality factors have been found to contribute to burnout. A personality orientation called Type A has been found to be associated with burnout. More recent research has shown that specific elements in Type A personality contribute to burnout: cynicism (low interpersonal trust) and a sense of loneliness. Other personality factors contributing to burnout are externality (a feeling that the person does not have control over what happens, and external forces or chances or fate determine things), low self esteem, rigidity, alienation, and machiavellism (manipulative orientation). One research has shown that stress tolerance is higher in individuals with great impulse control (voluntary delay of satisfaction of physical and physiological needs), or self control.

Several factors contribute to burnout phenomenon (stress being very low or very high, unliked stress called distress; stress-prone personality, alienating role of job, hostile relationships, stress-absorbing life-style, avoidance oriented role

style, use of dysfunctional coping modes or styles and hostile organizational climates). The opposite of these contribute to the phenomenon of blow-up.

How do we prevent burnout? How do we convert the energy leading to burnout into one which may blow us up? Factors contributing to burnout and blow-up and the conversion strategies are shown in Figure 10.3. It shows that development of inner-directedness (self-obligating orientation) achieves the optimum level of stress-one factor contributing to glow-up. Similarly for each contributing factor one conversion strategy has been suggested. Most of these are self-explanatory. For changing life style the use of Transactional Analysis has been suggested:

Understanding the life script, and then terminating it (descripting) through new decisions. Some special interventions may be needed for effective use of conversation strategies.

Rustout Stress Syndrome (ROSS)

Researchers have observed a phenomenon which is the opposite of BOSS. The Rustout Stress Syndrome or ROSS is indicative of stress underload. It occurs when there is a gap between what the executive is capable of doing and what is required to do. The concept of role erosion is close to the concept of ROSS. Stress underload can arise due to both qualitative and quantitative aspects of work. Clearly a situational appraisal is a prerequisite for countering stress.

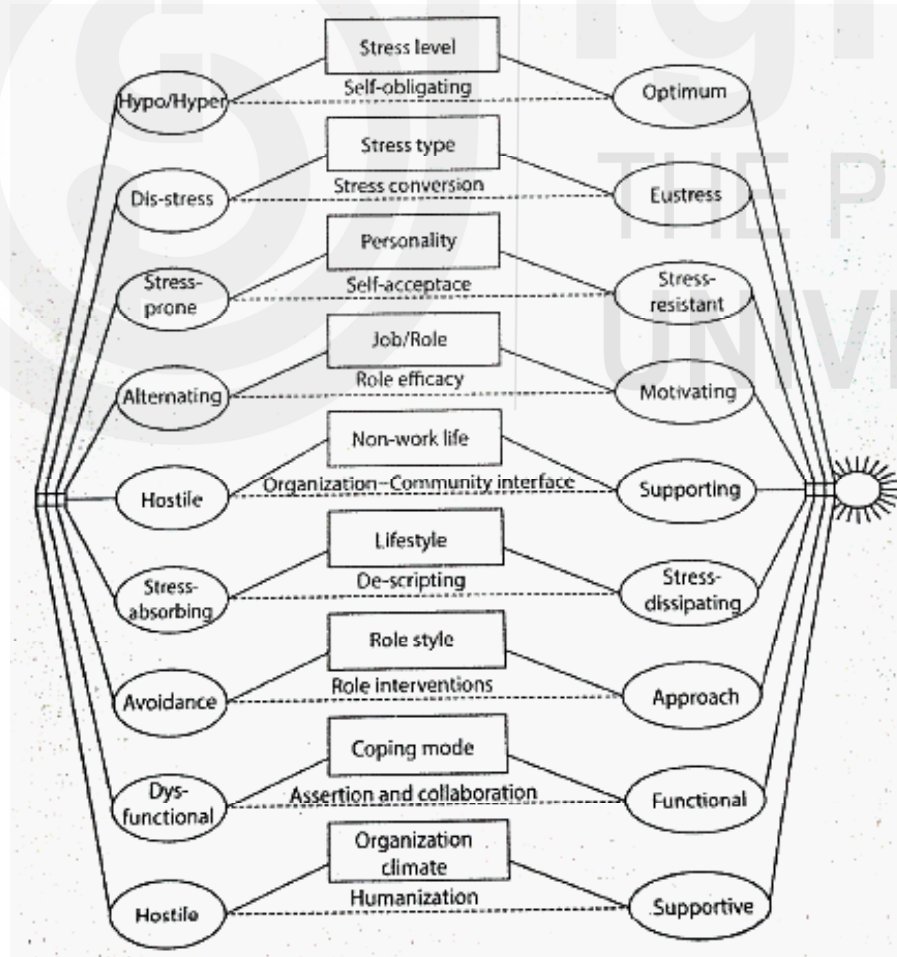


Figure 10.3: Executive Blowup and Burnout: Contributing Factors and Conversion Strategies

7.6 COPING WITH STRESS

Individuals and the organizations cannot remain in a continuous state of tension. Even if a deliberate and conscious strategy is not utilized to deal with the stress; some strategy is adopted; for example, the strategy may be to leave the conflicts and stress to take care of themselves. This is also a strategy, although the individual or the organizations may not be aware of this. This we call avoidance coping strategy.

The word coping has mainly two meanings predominant in the literature. The term coping has been used to denote the way of dealing with stress, or the effort to master conditions of harm, threat, or challenges when a routine or automatic response is not readily available.

Two different approaches to the study of coping have been pursued by various investigators. On the one hand, some have emphasized general coping traits, styles or dispositions, while others have preferred to study active ongoing strategies in particular stress situation.

Coping traits refer to a disposition to respond in a specific way in situations that are stressful. Coping traits are thus stable characteristics of the persons that transcend classes of situation. Coping style, tends to imply a broader, more encompassing disposition. Trait and style are fundamentally similar ideas. Trait and style refer to a characteristic way of handling situations, they are stable tendencies from which a prediction is made about how the person will cope in some or all types of stressful encounters. A person's coping style or disposition is typically assessed by personality tests, not by actual observation of what the person says or does in a particular stress situation.

The emphasis on process distinguishes the approach from most others, which are trait oriented. Psychologists have identified two major ways in which people cope with stress. One way is that the person may decide to suffer or deny the experienced stress, this is passive approach, or a person may decide to face the realities of experienced stress and clarify the problem through negotiations with other members. This is active approach.

Coping can have effects on three kinds of outcome: psychological, social and physiological. From a psychological perspective coping could effect psychological morale (that is, the way one feels about oneself and one's life), emotional reaction e.g., level of depression or anxiety, or the balance between positive trend and negative toned feelings (Bradburn, 1969), the incidence of psychiatric disorders and even performance. From a social perspective, one can measure its impact on functioning effectiveness, such as employability; community involvement, and sociability (Renne; 1974), the effectiveness of the interpersonal relationship, or the degree to which useful social roles are filled (and acting out, anti-social behaviour, etc. are avoided). From a physiological perspective, outcome include short-term consequences, such as the development and progression of particular disease.

Managing Stress

Each individual needs a moderate amount of stress to be alert and capable of functioning. Given that presence of more or less stress is inevitable; many

researchers sought to find to what could be one to counteract stress so as to prevent its negative consequences. Normally coping is defined as an adaptive response to stress; a response intended to eliminate, ameliorate or change the stress producing factors, or intended to modify the individual's reaction to stressful situation in a beneficial way.

There are basically two ways of managing stress:

- 1) What an organisation can do
- 2) What an individual can do

What an organisation can do:

What can an organisation do to alleviate stress? Some proactive interventions are listed below:

- Undertake a stress audit
- Use scientific input
- Check with the company doctor
- Spread the message

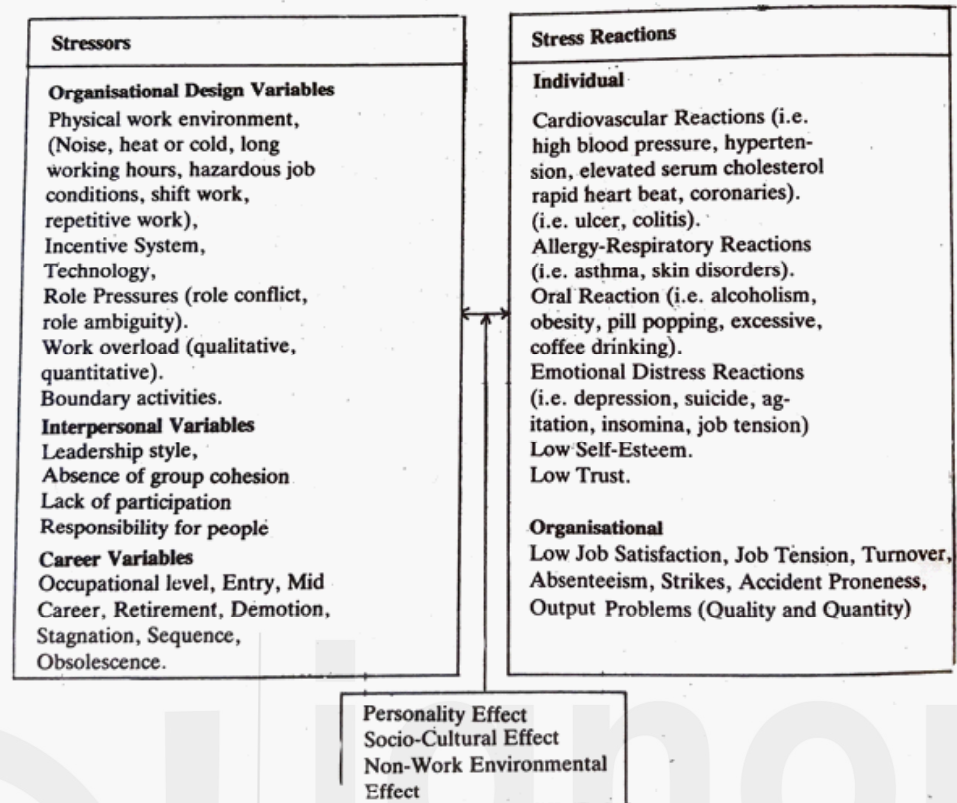
Stress Audit: Organisations have for almost a century now paid due attention to maintenance, creation and updating of technology. We are only gradually emerging from the stage where machines are better cared for than men. A stage has now been reached when the significance of human resource has been recognized for productive and healthy functioning of the organisation.

When an organisation decides to have a scientific peep into mental-cum-physical health status of its backbone group (executives) we call it a stress audit, stress audit refers to the attempt organizations make to study, explore and control the various types of stresses which the individual executives experience by virtue of their organizational membership.

In setting up a stress audit in an organisation, a distinction can be made among three categories of variables: casual stress variables (the stressors), mediating variables (the effect of personality, culture, and contemporary non-work environment) and end result variables (the stress reactions). The data needed for the stress audit can be collected with the aid of questionnaires, clinical diagnostic interviews and if possible, physical examination (Figure 10.4 gives an overview of stressors, mediating variables, and stress reaction patterns).

Use Scientific Inputs: Disperse information on how to face stressors in the organisation and outside. People derive immense benefits from knowing something about the fundamentals of the stress responses, dietetics exercises and meditation.

Check with the Company Doctor. What can he do to help the employees cope with the identified stress? Several progressive public as well as private organizations depute their chief medical officers or consultants to attend stress management programmes. They have acted a valuable resource to fellow participants and to their organizations.



Source: Kets de Varies

Figure 10.4: Gives an overview of stressors, mediating variables, and stress reaction patterns

Spread the Message: The importance of regular habits of work, leisure, proper diet, exercise and mental peace should be emphasised.

Organizational Strategies to prevent and manage Stress

- 1) **Job Redesign:** Redesigning jobs is important so that employee needs are taken care off and some sources of stress are reduced. An increase in worker control with help in reducing stress t organizational level; most common is job decision latitude. Another benefit of job redesign is to reduce uncertainty and increase predictability at workplace.
- 2) **Goal Settings:** This strategy is designed to enhance task motivation. It helps in focusing a person' attention and helps in channelizing energy into productive way.

What an Individual can Do:

When individuals experience stress, they adopt ways of dealing with it. An individual cannot remain in a continual state of tension, so even if a deliberate and conscious strategy is not utilized to deal with stress, some strategy is adopted. We shall call this coping. The word coping has been used mainly in two meanings, in a general meaning of ways of dealing with stress, or the effort to “master” conditions of harm, threat or challenge. We shall use the term coping in the first meaning (ways of dealing with stress), distinguishing with effective and ineffective coping. Pareek has suggested “approach” and “avoidance” strategies.

Generally effective coping strategies are “approach” strategies, to confront the problem of stress as a challenge, and to increase capability of dealing with it. Ineffective strategies are “escape” or avoidance strategies, to reduce the feeling of stress, for example, by denying the reality of stress, or through use of alcohol, drugs or other escapist behaviour.

Research has shown that social and emotional support available to the person helps him or her to effectively cope with stress. Persons maintaining close interpersonal relationship with friends and the family are able to use more appropriate strategies.

Social support includes both material support (providing resources), and emotional support (listening to the person and encouraging him/her). Studies have also shown that when one does not want support, if given, it may have negative consequences.

Approach or effective strategies of coping include efforts to increase physical and mental preparedness for coping (through physical exercises, yoga and meditation, diet management), creative diversions for emotional enrichment (music, art, theatre etc.), strategies of dealing with the basic problems causing stress, and collaborative work to solve such problems.

The various coping strategies or styles used in role stress have been studied, and the findings show that approach styles have strong relationship with internality, optimism, role efficacy, job satisfaction, and effective role behavior in organizations. Two contrasting approaches (avoidance or dysfunctional and approach or functional) for some role stresses are illustrated below.

Let us take self-role distance. Many individuals who find a conflict between their self-concept and the role they occupy in an organization, may either play that role in a routine way to earn their living. They take no interest in their role, and this is indicative of self-role distance. They have rejected the role. On the other hand, some other individuals may seriously occupy their roles and in due course of time, completely forget their self-concept and play that role effectively, but reject their self. Both these approaches are avoidance approaches.

Dysfunctional: If an individual rejects the role he likely to be ineffective in the organization. However, if one rejects the self, one is likely to lose the effectiveness as an individual and it is likely to be bad for one's mental health.

An approach or functional strategy of dealing with this stress is to attempt role integration. The individual may analyse the various aspects of the roles which are causing self-role distance and may begin to acquire skills if this may help one to bridge this gap, or carry one's own self into the role by defining some aspects of the role according to his own strengths. In other words, an attempt both to grow into the role and make the role grow to use the special capabilities of the person would result in role integration where the individual gets the satisfaction of occupying a role which is nearer to one's self-concept. Such an integration is not easy to achieve, but with systematic effort; it is also not very difficult to attain.

Similar is the case with **role expectation** conflict. When the various expectations from the role one occupies conflict with one another, role stress may develop.

One way to deal with the stress is to eliminate those expectations from the role which are likely to conflict with other expectation. This is the process of role shrinkage which is the act of pruning the role in such a way that some expectations can be given up. Role shrinkage may help to avoid the problem, but is a dysfunctional approach since the advantage of a larger role is lost. Instead of role shrinkage, if role linkages are established with other roles, and the problem is solved by devising some new ways of achieving the conflicting expectation, the individual can experience both the process of growth as well as satisfaction. If for example, a professor who is experiencing conflict between the expectation from the role, that of teaching students, doing research, and consulting with organisation, may find that the stress is essentially that of personal inadequacy. The person may not have enough skills for doing research. Usually because of lack of relative skills, one may take recourse to role shrinkage. However, one way to deal with this problem is to develop role linkage with other colleagues who are good in research, and work out an arrangement whereby research is not neglected. A better way of resolving the problems may be to find ways of doing things in a more non-traditional and productive way.

Role stagnation is a common stress in organization, when individuals get into new roles as a result of their advancement in the organization, or as result of taking over more challenging roles. There may be a feeling of apprehension because the role is new and may require skills which the role occupant may not have. In such a situation, a usual way is to continue to play the previous role about which the individual is sure, and which one has been doing successfully. In many cases this is the tragedy of the organizations that even after advancement people at the top continue to play the role of the lower level manager. A foreman, for example, in due course may become General Manager, and still may continue to play the role of the foreman with consequent frustrations to the new foreman and to others who expect him to devote the time to more productive aspects. In one organization after several self-search sessions; it became clear to many persons at the senior management level that their tendency to have close supervision was really a tendency to continue to play their old roles. This is especially so if the individual role requires more new skills which have to be developed. For example, planning roles and the role of scanning the environment require altogether new skills. In the absence of such skills, the usual tendency is to fall back on the old tried out roles. This is role fixation, and is an avoidance strategy.

As it is necessary for an individual to grow out of this role as a boy into that of an adolescent, and out of adolescence into adulthood, similarly, it is important for people to grow out of that old roles into new ones and face up the challenges. An approach and a more functional way to resolve this conflict is that of role transition. Role transition is the process by which a previous role, however successful and satisfying it may have been, is given up to take a new and more developed role.

Role transition is helped by various processes, including anticipatory socialization, role clarity, substitute gratification, and transition procedure. In order to make role transition more effective, it is necessary to have anticipatory socialization, that is preparation for the taking of the new role. This would also include delegation of responsibility and functions to people below one's own

role, so that the person can be free to experiment and can take help in such experimentation from others. Such is a process of role transition. The usual approach to deal with this problem is either to assign the roles clearly, so that a person is a husband/wife and or father/mother when one is at home, and an executive when one is at one's office, or there may be role elimination that is, accepting one role at the cost of the other role. In such a case; the individual taken recourse to rationalization. For example, an executive who neglects one's family at home and who in this process eliminates the role of father/mother and husband/wife, rationalizes the process by thinking that one makes a unique contribution to the company and, therefore, can afford to neglect the family, or earns enough for the family who should pay the price of losing the role in the family. Such rationalizations are part of the process of role elimination. These are avoidance strategies.

A more functional approach to the problem is **role negotiation**. The process of role negotiation is the process of establishing mutuality of roles and getting necessary help to play the roles more effectively, and giving help in turn to the other role. For example, an executive who is not able to find home for the family, may sit down and negotiate with spouse and children on how best one can spend time meaningfully within the given constraints. One executive in the largest nationalized bank in India solved the problem by discussing with his family and working out an arrangement whereby he would give entire Sundays to the family and would not normally accept invitations to dine out unless both the wife and husband were invited. This negotiation was highly satisfying because neither of roles had to be sacrificed and eliminated.

For **role ambiguity** the usual approach is to make the roles clear by putting various things on paper. This is **role prescription**. The various expectations are defined more clearly. Or, the individual may remove ambiguity by fitting into the role as described in some expectations. This is the process of role taking. Both are avoidance strategies. An approach strategy may be to seek clarification from various sources and to define the role in the light of such clarifications. In contrast with role taking, a more creative way is to define the role according to one's own strength and to take some steps in making the role more challenging. This is the process of role making.

To deal with the stress of **role overload**, that is, a feeling of too many expectations from several sources, the role occupant usually prepares a list of all functions in terms of priorities. Top priority is given to those functions which are important. This kind of prioritization may help put things in order of importance. However, the problem may be that the functions with which a person is less familiar and comfortable may tend to be pushed low down the priority list, and may be neglected. Those functions which a person is able to perform without any effort get top priority. Those which are in the lower level of priority always remain neglected, and in this sense, this approach may be dysfunctional. This is an avoidance strategy. A more functional approach may be to redefine the role and see which aspects of the role may be delegated to other persons who may be helped to develop take on these functions. This may help the other individuals also to grow. This may be called **role slimming**. The role does not lose its vitality in the process of delegating some functions; in fact the vitality increases with decrease in obesity.

In role isolation (when there is tension and distance between two roles in an organization) the usual tendency is for each role occupant to play the role most efficiently, and avoid interactions. The role occupant confines to one's own role. This may be called **role boundness**. One is voluntarily agrees to be bound by the role. This strategy avoids the possible conflict. This is to find individual executives and managers who are responsible for the organization. This is likely to be dysfunctional as it does not help the individual play the role in the larger interest of the organization. A better method and an approach strategy is **role negotiation**.

In **role erosion** an individual feels that some important functions which one would prefer to perform are being performed in some other roles. The usual reactions in such a situation is to fight for rights of the role, and to insist on clarification of roles. The solution is sought in making structural clarification. However, this not likely to be functional and helpful, since the basic conflict is avoided and it continues. An approach strategy may be that of role enrichment. Like job enrichment, the concept role enrichment suggests vertical loading of the role. Role enrichment can be done by analyzing the role systematically, and helping the individuals to see the various strengths in the role and the various challenges which the role contains but which might not have been apparent to the individual when one performs it. Significant role set members can help to make the role more challenging and satisfying to the role occupant.

Figure 10.5 summarizes the functional and dysfunctional strategies for the 10 role stresses.

	Role Stresses	Dysfunctional Strategies	Functional Strategies
1.	Self-role distance	Role rejection, self rejection	Role integration
2.	Interrole distance	Role partition, role elimination	Role negotiation
3.	Role stagnation	Role fixation	Role transition
4.	Role isolation	Role boundness	Role linkage
5.	Role ambiguity	Role prescription	Role clarification
6.	Role expectation conflict	Role taking	Role making
7.	Role overload	Role reduction	Role slimming
8.	Role erosion	Role visibility	Role development/ enrichment
9.	Resource inadequacy	Role atrophy	Resource generation
10.	Personal inadequacy	Role shrinkage	Role linkage

Figure 10.5: Coping Strategies for Role Stresses

In summary, effective management of stress involves directing stress for productive purpose, preparing role occupants to understand the nature of stress, helping role occupants to understand their strengths and usual styles, and equip them to develop approach strategies of coping with stress. The next chapter deals with one systematic approach to make roles more effective and develop approach competence to deal with some dominations of role stress.

Gmelch (1982) suggests the following five strategies to overcome stress affliction

- **Take a hard look at yourself:** Determine where stresses originate in your life. Critically examine your own contribution to stresses experienced by others around you, be they in the organization or outside it.
- **Stay alert:** Do things, other than your job, which give you a sense of meaning and satisfaction.
- **Take risks:** Growth and productivity result from taking moderate risks in various types of activities.
- **Avoid isolation:** Withdrawing from others can lead to isolation and depression. Keep the channels of communication open with colleagues, friends and the family.
- **Stretch for success:** Stretching for success keeps you on your toes. Make an effort with the hope to achieve your goals. Efforts and desire to overcome the obstacle are essential to tide over ROSS.
- **Overcome obsolescence:** Update your knowledge and skill to face the challenge brought about by the changing technological environment.

Besides the above mentioned strategies to overcome stress, all individual process stress safety valves. The stress safety valves serve at least two important functions. First, they enable one to escape the direct pressure of work stress. One's instinctive stress response mobilizes one for a single escape strategy: vigorous physical fight. If an individual can develop effective stress safety valve, it is as if one is taking conscious control of this fight response. The second function of stress safety valves is to counter act the biochemical and psychological changes that occur when mobilize to deal with stress, one may or may not be aware of this build up, but occurs nevertheless, It manifests itself in muscle tension. It shows up changes in body chemistry we can sometimes feel as with a burning stomach, itchy eyes and skin, or dry mouth.

A few safety valves are suggested below:

Changing Gears: Changing gears involves shifting 'from' work 'to' something else. In order to changes gears, one has to try activities that capture his/her interest. Psychologists call such pursuits 'intrinsic motivators'. They give one a feeling of well-being. Changing gears not only removes one's attention from pressures of work, it helps drain off the pent-up tensions. The pursuit of almost any non-work project or hobby can reduce stress.

Cutback on Excessive Hours: For many people, burnout and overtime go hand in hand. It is generally seen that the more hours you work the more likely you are to burnout.

Job burnout cycle keeps some people glued to their jobs through inefficiency. Some kind of work stress starts the cycle of energy consumption and consequent fatigue. Then they lose their efficiency at work and have to stay late more and more frequently to finish up. But this overtime only speeds up the process, for it adds an additional work stress. Often, as the burnout victims falls further behind he or she can loose self-confidence and work even harder and longer to make up for the sense of inadequacy.

Exercise : Because burnout almost always comes from excessive mental and emotional stress, physical exercise offers one of the best safety valves. Exercise works as a stress inoculation according to Dr. George Williams (Director of the Institute of Health Research, San Francisco), not only relieving the pressure at the end of a hectic day, but making it possible for you to deal more effectively with stress the next day.

Exercise does not have to be strenuous or competitive. Walking offers many benefits and can put one into excellent cardiovascular condition, as well as reduce stress.

Pamper yourself: Most of us know how to pamper other people when they experience a life crisis. We send flowers to a friend in the hospital, shovel snow from the walk of a neighbor who recently lost his wife etc. such special attention helps people cope with stress. Pampering yourself can have the same effect.

There are many ways to pamper oneself. The harassed assembly line worker might plan a series of mini-vacations instead of taking all two weeks in a single block of time. The housewife might arrange a trip to visit an old friend or plan an evening out—without the kids. The key object in pampering oneself is to break the routine.

Get involved: A boring job can lead to burnout as easily as a challenging one with too much pressure. If an individual work does not use ones skills, if it leaves him thinking that even a chimp could do this, then one may need to get involved.

Warm up slowly: One can often get control of a tense, pressured work day if one changes the way it begins, the basketball player warms up before the buzzer sound to start the game. If an individual's day begins with a sudden rush of activity or a mad scramble on some crowded subway it will add to one's stress. The most important two-hour period in one day is prior to starting work. During that period one should set the tone for the day. That's when one enters one's own compression chamber. The little things one does in the morning prepares the person for the tensions one encounters during the day.

Release Pressures on the Job

The people who burnout are often the best workers. They take their jobs seriously. Work faster and harder than others and never shirk responsibility. This very commitment makes them more susceptible to work stress. The pressures build up and they do not find it as easy to pen the safety valves, good off, or escape for a few minutes.

One of the best ways of releasing the pressure on the job is to rearrange one's schedule. One way to deal with stress is to confront difficult tasks when one is fresh. When one is tired, the pressure can hit harder.

Practice Relaxation Techniques: The stress response goes through four processes: mobilization, increase in energy consumption, muscular action involved in fight or, flights and then a return to equilibrium. One can aid that process by learning to switch off the stress response and switch on the relaxation response. Thus it can be seen that certain amount of stress is essential for doing any task well but each individual should know one's stress tolerance limit and not stretch too far.

10.7 SUMMARY

In this unit we tried to understand the concept of stress and the impact it has on organisations. It explained the reasons for stress to occur in organisations. The unit also explained how organisations and individuals can deal with stress.

10.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain and differentiate eustress, distress, hypostress and hyperstress.
2. What are various types of stress and explain how it affects an individual with examples.
3. Discuss Stress Management techniques.
4. Discuss the concepts of Burnout and Rustout.
5. What can organisation do to overcome stress?
6. How can individuals deal with stress.

10.9 FURTHER READINGS/ REFERENCES

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Block

4

EMERGING TRENDS

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BLOCK INTRODUCTION

This block consists of five units which encompasses the emerging trends in the field of organisational behaviour. The first unit is Employee Empowerment. It discusses the concept and perspectives of employee empowerment in organisations. The second unit is Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, which provides insights into the concept, dimensions and implications of OCB. The third unit is Organisational Inclusiveness, which dwells upon the emerging trends like workforce diversities like disability and gender. Also it covers how an inclusive workplace can be developed. The fourth unit covers Diversity Management and explains how organisations have become global to manage diverse work force. The last unit is Positive Approaches to Work Behaviour. It covers the aspects of work behaviour, emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence.



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UNIT 11 EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

Objectives

After completion of the unit, you will be able to:

- understand the concept of employee empowerment;
- give the rationale for empowerment;
- implement empowerment; and
- recognize empowered employees.

Structure

- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Concept and Theory of Employee Empowerment
- 11.3 Management's Role in Empowerment
- 11.4 Measuring Empowerment
- 11.5 Pros & Cons of Empowerment in an Organization
- 11.6 Summary
- 11.7 Self-Assessment Questions
- 11.8 Further Readings/ References

11.1 INTRODUCTION

Employee empowerment provides employees with a certain degree of responsibility and autonomy for making decisions related to specific tasks of the organization. Employee empowerment over the years increased a sense of ownership within the organization. The empowered personnel will become more passionate and show the desire to make embracing changes than other employees in the organization.

11.2 CONCEPT AND THEORY OF EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

Meaning

Empowerment is the process of enabling or authorizing an individual to think, behave, act, and control work and decision-making in autonomous ways.

Definition

- According to Richard Kath Nelson, 'Empowerment is the process coming to feel and behave as if one is in power and to feel as if they owned the firm.'
- According to Bowen and Lawler, 'Employee empowerment refers to the management strategies for sharing decision-making power.'

Concept

Empowerment is the ongoing process of providing the tools, infrastructure, training, resources, encouragement and motivation your workers need to perform at the optimum level. If you focus on employee empowerment, it will speed up processes with quality production and services. An employee feels much more control in their work life since authority is given to an individual to make decisions. There is hidden potential among employees, which can be revealed through empowerment.

Theoretical Approaches to Empowerment

Study of empowerment can be done in three theoretical approaches:

The **Socio-structural perspective** concentrates on redesigning or advancing organizational policies, practices, and structures to provide power, authority, and influence over their work to employees.

The **Psychological approach** concentrates on empowering employee effectiveness by developing their competence and self-determination

The **Critical perspective** challenges the concept of employee empowerment and argues that empowerment leads to less precise control over employees.

Principle of Employee Empowerment

The principle of employee empowerment applicable to management allowing employees to make decisions that affect their jobs rather than having to clear everything with managers. Two of the key elements of employee empowerment are efficient hiring system and constant training.

11.3 MANAGEMENT'S ROLE IN EMPOWERMENT

Everything management does to promote empowerment should have the goal of establishing a creative, open, non-threatening environment in which involved, motivated, dedicated employees can flourish. The three words that perfectly describe management's role in empowerment are commitment, leadership, and facilitation. The manager's role in empowerment consists of exhibiting a supportive attitude, being a role model, being a mentor, being a trainer, being a facilitator, practicing management by walking around, taking quick action on recommendations, and recognizing the accomplishments of employees.

Brainstorming

Employees are motivated to share their views and ideas. All ideas suggested are recorded then after evaluation process begins. They are asked to go through the list, assessing the relative merits of each. The process is repeated until the group narrows the choices to a specified number.

Quality Circles

A quality circle is a group of employees that assembles regularly and make group decisions regarding improvements of the organization. The main difference between quality circles and brainstorming is that quality circle members are

volunteers who summon themselves and conduct their own meetings. Quality circles assemble regularly before, during, or after a shift to discuss their work, predict problems, propose workplace improvements, set goals, and make plans.

Walking and Talking MBWA (Management by Walking Around):

Simply walking around the workplace and talking with employees can be an effective way to solicit input. An effective way to prompt employee input is to ask the right questions and to use open-ended questions.

Following are a few things leaders can do to build an environment that empowers people.

- 1) Give power to those who have demonstrated the capacity to handle the responsibility.
- 2) Create a favorable environment in which people are encouraged to grow their skills.
- 3) Don't second-guess others' decisions and ideas unless it's necessary. This only undermines their confidence and keeps them from sharing future ideas with you.
- 4) Give people discretion and autonomy over their tasks and resources.

Activity 1

Describe the concept of employee empowerment in your own words and enlist types of empowerment that you are aware.

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Empowerment has become necessary due to the following reasons

Empowerment of employees helps an organization to assign different projects to hone the competence of employees.

Motivation

A work team can avoid the inspection of the organization if it continually performs above the organization expectations, and without disturbance. To do that, the group develops ways to motivate itself and develops methods for staying efficient. For example, team members will often take it upon themselves to remind the rest of the group of the benefits of high productivity, including pay raises and management recognition. An empowered group will cross-train each and every member of their group to do the basics of each other's jobs. Thus, the team can still be productive even a team member is ever out.

Creativity

When an employee feels a sense of accomplishment and feels valued, he is

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more likely to get attached in critical and creative thinking. He will feel more capable and inspired to deal situations in unconventional ways, which can lead to better production. Empowering an employee make himself to think and take the initiative and may find unique ways to add worth to the organization and revise processes or policies that no longer are efficient. This removes some of the pressure on management to stay innovate and stay ahead of the industry.

Job Satisfaction

Empowerment provides the employee with a sense of autonomy, which will increase one's job satisfaction. They will be more comfortable at work because it enhances confidence. A happy employee provides the best customer service, and that results in leaving a good impact on an organization.

Decision-Making

Rapid growth in technology provides customers in finding information about products and services in increasingly diverse ways; employees need to make quick and apt decisions that benefit your organization. And decision making should be taken in a quicker manner to find new ways to meet customer demands. Independent decision-making can enhance self-confidence among the employees.

Loyalty

An employee exhibits loyalty if supported, respected, listened to and valued. He is more likely to work hard and promote the organization when the opportunity arises.

Cost Savings

Employees who perform their tasks on a regular basis have an intimate understanding of how their jobs are done. According to Chapter 18 of "The Reinventor's Field book" titled "Employee Empowerment," by empowering employees to determine their work methods, organizations can benefit from the years of experience each employee has. By allowing employees to suggest and make procedural changes that make their jobs more efficient, organizations benefit by saving money.

Morale

Employees who are empowered in their jobs have a greater responsibility. Putting employees in charge of their results will boost up the morale of the employees. Empowered employees know that their ideas matter to the success of the organization, so they tend to take a greater interest in creating a more efficient and profitable organization. This all has a positive effect on the organization bottom line.

Management-Employee Relationship

Employee empowerment can help to strengthen the bond between managers and employees, according to the article titled "Employee Empowerment: Management Giving Power to the People" published on the Thinking Managers website. Managers are coaches with an utmost interest in the success of their employees in contrast with those that dictate policy and give commands.

Managers and employees learn to depend on one another for getting things done.

Direct Accountability

Empowered employees are accountable for their jobs as they make their own decisions. This is advantageous for organizations because instead of harnessing managers with the responsibility for all decisions, employees handle some of the decision-making slack. Thus, it would be easy to identify the exact sources of consequences. Organizations can offer training to specific employees to improve themselves as opposed to spending time and money on training entire departments.

Job Duties

The experienced employee has the ability to do a job in a most effective way. The organization can benefit from allowing experienced employees to alter job duties that make the organization more productive. For example, an employee may notice that the basic maintenance on a particular machine once a week, as opposed to once a month, enhances the output of that machine and extends the life time of equipment. The employee then consults the management and alters the job duties of his position to include weekly maintenance on the machine instead of monthly. Empowered employees help to evolve job descriptions to make them more relevant to upcoming employees and the organization's success.

Team Structure

Empowered employee groups are encouraged to create their own structure so that they can feel comfortable in the way it works and increase its productivity. The manager observes the team performance but only interferes if necessary. Thus, created structure on its own dictates how the team processes information and how the team efficiently executes its duties.

11.4 MEASURING EMPOWERMENT

After all, there is a need to measure how well employees are empowered. Regarding this point, Employee Empowerment Inventory (EEI) has been developed. It is an "inventory" rather than a survey as it is trying to measure the current state of everyone in the organization.

The inventory is usually scheduled to be issued every six months so that an organization can track its progress.

The general form of the inventory is as follows:

- Does the employee feel empowered by their direct supervisor?
- Which of the five components, if any, is the major barrier to their empowerment?
- Does the employee have the knowledge necessary to accomplish the job
- What is the most important barrier to attaining the knowledge necessary to accomplish the job?

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- Does the employee have the tools necessary to accomplish the job?
- What is the most important barrier to attaining the tools necessary to accomplish the job?
- Does the employee understand the responsibilities necessary to accomplish the job?
- What is the most important barrier to attaining an understanding of the responsibilities necessary to accomplish the job?
- Does the employee and others around them have the accountability necessary to accomplish the job?
- What is the most important barrier to attaining the accountability necessary to accomplish the job?
- Does the employee have the authority necessary to accomplish the job?
- What is the most important barrier to attaining the authority necessary to accomplish the job?
- Beyond the control of the direct supervisor, is the employee empowered?
- Beyond the control of the direct supervisor, what barriers exist to being empowered?
- (Optional) What percent of the employee's time is spent in crises or unplanned activities that are not part of their job?
- (Optional) What percent of the employee's time do they spend in meetings that are a waste of their time?

Empowerment in Strategic Planning

Sometimes empowerment will be addressed in the strategic plan. This implies that the difference between where you are and where you want to be will require special activities outside the usual day-to-day work. In the strategic planning process, empowerment has a unique status.

Activity 2

Scan through at least three company websites and enlist different methods that are used to measure employee empowerment inventory.

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11.5 THE PROS & CONS OF EMPOWERMENT IN AN ORGANIZATION

Now-a-days, empowerment has become a popular word in the business environment. Empowerment refers to the management practice of giving

authority to employees in making decisions regarding their work, in contrast with a traditional environment in which the boss gives orders. While contemporary business theory often argues that the empowerment style of leadership is more productive. Like all leadership styles, it has its pros and cons.

Pros:

1) Increased Productivity and Morale

Empowering employees to make decisions on their own can increase productivity. When employees don't have to wait for approval from a manager or supervisor, the workflow doesn't slow down or stop. Employees solve their own issues, and they keep moving. Employees who feel confident that their input will be valued, listened to and acted upon will be more likely to share their views and ideas, benefiting employee as well as the employer. John Zink of the PHCC Educational Foundation says, "Sometimes it takes an employee stepping outside of their authority to show the benefits of employee empowerment an owner."

2) Improved Quality

Providing employees with tools and guidelines and proper training to make independent decisions often encourages them to produce quality work and helping your organization meet its goals. A 1999 study of Canadian hospitals conducted by the University of Alberta found that a culture of employee empowerment and ownership is a key to reach quality improvement goals and maintain quality standards. When properly trained employees are empowered to solve problems, take risks or be creative in their approach to work, they are more likely to assume authority on the tasks. Whether the job is caring for ill patients, developing an entire product line or simply selling movie tickets, empowered employees often feel the sense of authority in the organization and their work and struggle consistently to produce quality results.

3) Better Customer Service

Simon Sinek, a blogger who writes "The Empowered Employee," says that empowered employees provide exceptional service and he's experienced this first-hand. "Empowered employees have the power to make decisions without a supervisor. They are entitled to go off script, bend the rules, do what they see fit if they believe it is the right thing to do for the customer. More than any other kind of employee, the empowered employee can create a feeling of true customer service that ultimately yields much greater customer loyalty," he says. Organizations that give employees the freedom to make decisions on the spot, which may even sometimes fly in the face of established rules and protocol, often find that service to internal and external customers is improved.

4) Embracing change

Empowered employees are always free to change and challenge the status quo that is considerably quite critical for organizations that are fast changing and technology based environment. Organizations which feel uncomfortable about questioning their status quo will most probably stay

stagnant since other organizations may swiftly get past them. By establishing an environment where the employees are feeling free to ask, offer and challenge new ideas may avoid such a problem and help the employers and employees in the same process.

5) Collaboration

Since employees have been treated and empowered as essential components within the organization, they gain a lot of self-confidence as well as their abilities to influence the organization. They feel comfortable in exchanging their new views and ideas, and collaborating with colleagues in an honest and broad manner. The behavior boosts their team work, promotes and increases involvement in supporting main goals of the organization. Thus, collaboration plays a key role in attaining a lot more than any individual can attain on their own in the organization.

6) Communication is boosted

Being less prominent in knowing the changes in the organization is not a good thing for employees. To overcome that, managers should keep the employees informed regarding environment and jobs. The management should be receptive when it comes to intake of employees and gives them a better sense of control over the strategic and financial decision. This culture makes employees feel more comfortable and share their ideas with management and improve the morale of the workplace. In return, the employees will become more receptive towards any positive training from the management.

7) Clients will be much happier

When the clients have been given power, they feel very happy and satisfied with their position. They become more enthusiastic and feel better. This happens to be a key area when financial improvements have been realized from empowering their employees. The clients always communicate with the attentive and friendly staff, regardless of their enterprise! And the empowered personnel will take a much more personal approach with their clients and focus on creative and better ways to solve problems that appear much less tied to the policy of the organization. In turn, the organization will feel increased concern and improve retention and loyalty.

Cons:

Like all leadership styles employee empowerment also is likely to have some disadvantages. It leads to decrease in efficiency because of non-uniform decisions that are unoptimized for organizational goals. It can also create issues with collaboration throughout the organization because decisions are decentralized and not managed at the top. Manager and employee relationships can become tense as the boundaries of authority blurred.

1) Abusing power

When the empowered employees are given powers to make decisions in their own way most of them tend to abuse their power. There is a slight chance and a huge possibility of taking advantage of the empowered for

better and even more personal gain. This implies the employees may become less responsible for efficient based decisions they have made. For example, the employee tends to spend time on non-work related things such as breaks and committee meetings rather than on work.

2) Interpersonal relations

The complication in interpersonal relations arises with empowering employees. The power they got to make decisions is being rooted to this complexity that could bring conflicts and misunderstanding between staff and management. In the trail of accepting the better culture of employee empowerment, the management is facing a tough time in any organization. These conflicts could result in any environment where the management and employees cannot have proper working relations. Even when empowerment could provide you with subordinate employees as well as job satisfaction, it could deprive their managers at the same time.

3) Additional costs of training

Empowering employees trained well for educating them regarding assertiveness, leadership skills, and group dynamics. The additional costs, as well as time, are to be incurred by the organization to make it happen to accept the fact that training will get you positive results.

4) Poor knowledge and understanding

Even though the ability to make decisions could be considered capable, it comes with a few negative points as well. Lack of proper knowledge in taking a decision regarding various business fields undermine the success of the organization and may cause more interrelation conflicts. Lack of proper training could be the cause.

5) Arrogance

The confidence level of an empowered employee is highly increased as they are provided with sufficient power. That could be considerable, but too much of confidence is not an even good thing. Increased levels of confidence could lead to arrogance behavior. Handling such employees is quite difficult which does become insubordinate in the future.

6) Risks of security and confidentiality

Employees are empowered by sharing information that is not supposed to be shared with others. There is a lot of information that exchanges freely among employees within the organization which can increase risk while considering the security and confidentiality when leaked to others who usually don't have any access to that type of information.

Beyond Empowerment to Enlistment

Employee enlistment goes beyond empowerment in that it not only allows employees to own their jobs and to innovate but also expects them to do so. Empower the employees by making it clear that their authority over things or ownership is necessary and the one that is expected. Make ownership a criterion in the performance appraisal process. In meetings, expect employees to be

engaged. Make enlistment a guiding principle in the organization's strategic plan.

Deploying Improvements in Empowerment

As an organization deploys to achieve a breakthrough advancements in empowerment, there may be activities across the organization to be undertaken. This implies to the things that everyone in the organization needs to work on, regardless of whether it is the most important aspect towards empowerment in each manager's respective area. If this is the case, it will be identified and given resources in the overall strategic planning stage.

However, unlike many other things that an organization might choose to improve, empowerment is granted by every supervisor, so when it shows up in a strategic plan, each supervisor ends up with an objective around empowerment. A supervisor only has a span of control over their direct reports, so these objectives are written around only that supervisor's direct reports empowerment. However, by deploying this to each level of management, we do make sure that each manager is held responsible for empowering their employees, since they, in turn, hold them responsible for empowering their direct reports, all the way through the organization.

11.6 SUMMARY

This discussion gives a clear picture of employee empowerment. This style of leadership, i.e., providing ownership to employees by proper training results in increased production rate that too with quality. There by a hike in the reputation of organization follows. Although it has some demerits – like every style of leadership exhibits – they can be controlled by providing tools, managerial guidelines and proper training to the employees who are to be empowered. However, being a different concept, Employee Empowerment has become a buzz word in today's techno-driven environment. It is making its presence necessary in all most all organizations.

11.7 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) What is employee empowerment? Discuss the theories associated with it citing examples.
- 2) Enlist various employee empowerment techniques that are used by organisations. Describe them with illustration.
- 3) Explain how the employee empowerment inventory is measured?

11.8 FURTHER READINGS/ REFERENCES

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UNIT 12 ORGANIZATION CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Objectives

After completion of the unit, you will be able to:

- to understand the concept of Organization Citizenship Behaviour (OCB).
- to learn the dimension and implications of OCB.
- to learn how to measure OCB.

Structure

- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Concept
- 12.3 Evolution of the Concept
- 12.4 Forms and Dimensions of OCB
- 12.5 Antecedents of OCB
- 12.6 Implications of OCB
- 12.7 OCB in Practice
- 12.8 Measuring OCB
- 12.9 OCB: Potential Pitfalls
- 12.10 Summary
- 12.11 Self-Assessment Questions
- 12.12 Further Readings/ References

12.1 INTRODUCTION

In a work place, to certify someone as a good employee, certain quantifiable traits are looked for, in the performance appraisals. These quantifiable traits mostly focus on actions that are expected out of the employee, as mandated by the designation. Will these alone make a 'Good employee'? Are there any other actions left behind, which are not mandated by the organization, but still exhibited by the employees? Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is a term that encompasses anything positive and constructive that employees do, of their own volition, which supports co-workers and benefits the company. Employees who engage in OCB, necessarily not be the top performers, but they always tend to go an 'extra mile', apart from satisfying the minimum requirements of his/her job. It is stated that by encouraging employees to engage in OCB, Organizations have shown to increase productivity, efficiency and customer satisfaction, and reduce costs and rates of turnover and absenteeism (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009).

12.2 CONCEPT

Whether to engage in OCB or not is a personal discretion of the employee, still organizations can promote OCB by motivating them and also providing them with an opportunity to exhibit OCB. The organization should create a workplace environment that not only allows for, but is conducive and supportive of OCB (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006). This could be done by including measures of OCB in performance appraisals and recognising and rewarding employees who exhibit OCB. Though OCB is perceived to be intangible, and difficult to quantify, it has shown to have a considerable positive impact at the organisational level, enhancing organisational effectiveness from 18 to 38% across different dimensions of measurement (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000; Ehrhart, 2004).

Definition

The term 'Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)' was coined in the late 1980. Since then it has undergone few revisions, though the basic concept remains the same. OCB refers to any spontaneous action that is executed by the employee, as desired by him/her, which is not mandated by the organization or demanded by the seniors even. The basic understanding of OCB as going 'the extra mile' or 'above and beyond' to help others at work is what many are familiar with, and that is how OCB is conceptualised. An employee extending a helping hand to a newcomer, or helping a colleague in his task or volunteering to change shifts are few typical examples of OCB. Apart from these organizational related acts like extending the shift to complete the task or volunteering to organise events without expecting any additional remuneration, also come under OCB.

Even before the term OCB was coined, Barnard (1938) came out with a definition that would rightly define OCB. He stated that "the willingness of individuals to contribute cooperative efforts to the organization was indispensable to effective attainment of organizational goals."

Katz's (1964) focussed on the notion behind the extra-role behaviour of the employees. Katz noted that "employees willingly contribute extra efforts for the attainment of the organizational outcomes."

Relying on the notions of both Barnard and Katz, Organ developed his OCB construct. According to Organ (1988) "OCB is an individual's discretionary behavior which is not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and it in the aggregate that promotes the effective functioning of the organization."

Van Dyne et al. (1995) who proposed the broader construct of "extra-role behavior" (ERB), defined OCB as "a behavior which benefits the organization and/or is intended to benefit the organization, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations".

12.3 EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT

The idea of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) was initially put forth by Chester Barnard (1938) as "the willingness of individuals in organizations to

cooperate". He later defined "cooperation as genuine restraint of oneself, actual voluntary service for no reward and even subjection of one's own personal interest for the betterment of the organization". He focussed on the notion of an individual while exhibiting an extra-role behaviour, alongside executing the assigned tasks, as required by their job.

In line with Barnard, Katz (1964) brought a demarcation in the concept of OCB as "innovative and spontaneous behaviors" rather than an obligatory role performance. The basis for the differentiation is whether or not such spontaneous behaviors, are found in an individual's job description.

Research on OCB took a new pace after a formal naming and Organ (1988) defining OCB. He stated that "OCB is a voluntary individual behavior that, when aggregated across people and time, contributes to the improved performance of the organization". OCB is termed as beneficial component for organizations, as individuals volunteered to do tasks that are not formally structured or mandated as a part of the individual's assignment or role. Such efforts put in by the employees, are labelled by scholars as organizational citizenship Behaviour.

12.4 FORMS AND DIMENSIONS OF OCB

Forms of OCB

Scholars have always attempted to view OCB from two perspectives; Individual and Organizational. Based on the taxonomy of Organ, Williams and Anderson (1991), organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is divided into two broad categories as organizational citizenship behaviour -organizational (OCB-O) and organizational citizenship behaviour-individual (OCB-I). OCB-O describes the extra role behaviour of the employees which directly benefits the organisation like organising a 'Clean drive' in the campus. OCB-I deals with extra-role behaviours exhibited by the employees, towards his/her colleagues like helping them in accomplishing their tasks etc., Ozturk (2010), defines OCB-I as "set of behaviours that directly benefit individuals but indirectly and ultimately benefit the organization". Understanding the relationships between these forms of OCB and both their antecedents and consequences is important in order to capture the multi-dimensional nature of OCB.

Dimensions of OCB

Initially Organ and his colleagues (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) described organization citizenship behaviour as having two basic dimensions— *altruism* and *generalized compliance*.

Altruism in general is defined as a helping behavior, directed towards individuals. For example when co-workers need some assistance in completing a task, altruistic people go beyond their job description to assist them. *Generalised Compliance* is defined as "people doing things 'right and proper' for their own sake rather than for any specific person.

Later Organ (1988) attempted to further define OCB by identifying five specific categories of discretionary behavior and also explained how they could translate into organizational efficiency.

Emerging Trends

- *Altruism* is typically directed toward other individuals but contributes to group efficiency by enhancing individuals' performance. For eg. Extending a helping hand for a new comer in the organization.
- *Conscientiousness* enhances the efficiency of both an individual and the group. For eg. Completes assigned task before schedule and is available for tasks which are not obligatory.
- *Sportsmanship* improves the amount of time spent on constructive endeavours in the organization. For eg. Tend to find a solution rather than complaining the situation.
- *Courtesy* helps prevent problems and facilitates constructive use of time. For eg., sharing of knowledge and information among co-workers
- *Civic Virtue* promotes the interests of the organization. For eg. Volunteering and heading teams towards CSR activities of the organisation.

12.5 ANTECEDENTS OF OCB

As OCB is found to be beneficial in every organization, identifying and thoroughly investigating the factors which influences engagement in OCB, would furthermore enable people to engage in OCB. Serious attempts have been and are being made by academicians, to identify the predictors of OCB, and they have undoubtedly succeeded in doing so. "A wide range of employee, task, organizational and leader characteristics are consistently found to predict different types of OCB across a range of occupations" (Podsakoff et. al, 2000). The predictors so far identified by researchers include, Attitude, Employee engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisory support and organizational justice. Personality variables such as conscientiousness and agreeableness also influence people to engage in OCB (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Organ (2006) stated that leadership styles like Instrumental leadership, Supportive leadership and Transformational leadership, can encourage OCB in various ways if deployed effectively, provided the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX) is high. Leader-member exchange deals with the interaction between a superior and a subordinate. Such interaction is characterised by mutual trust and liking, which facilitates OCB. Leadership characteristics and a healthy Leader-member exchange have a strong influence on an employee's willingness to engage in OCB. Ultimately it is the trust between the Leaders and subordinate, that counts, rather than different styles of leadership (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The reward behaviour of the leader, that is recognising and appreciating the employees on their achievements and rewarding them appropriately, is positively related to OCB (Podsakoff et. al, 2000).

The research on the antecedents of OCB conducted by Smith & Bateman, (1983) and Organ (1983) revealed that job satisfaction is the best predictor of OCB. It was further substantiated by (Brown, 1993) who stated that Employees with high levels of job satisfaction are more likely to be engage in OCB. Moreover, individuals with higher levels of job satisfaction never had the intention to leave the organization (Sager, 1994).

Affective organizational commitment is another factor which is often cited as an antecedent of OCB. Affective commitment is conceptualized as a strong belief in, and acceptance of, an organization's goals and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Affective commitment enhances engagement to OCB, without expecting any formal rewards. (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Organizational Justice refer to whether or not employees feel organizational decisions are unbiased, and also if employee opinion is considered before decision making. It also refer to whether or not employees perceive that they are being treated equally with respect to training, tenure, responsibility or workload. Perceptions of fairness are positively related to OCB (Moorman, 1991)

Research on the role of *Group Characteristics* on OCB, revealed that group cohesiveness, team-member exchange, group potency and perceived team support were positively related to OCB (Organ et al., 2006).

Perceived organizational support (POS) is the degree to which employees believe that their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being and fulfils socioemotional needs. Perceived Organizational Support (POS) refers to employees' perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being. The relationship between POS and OCB has always been positive.

Perceived supervisory support (PSS) is defined as the degree to which supervisors value the contributions, opinions or gestures of their subordinates and care about their well-being (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). As such, PSS has been conceptualized to explain why subordinates display commitment to their supervisor. PSS is defined as the degree to which supervisors value the contributions, opinions or gestures of their subordinates and care about their well-being (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). The relationship between OCB and POS have always been positive.

12.6 IMPLICATIONS OF OCB

- Presence of high level of OCB in an organization maximises the organizational performance in various dimensions.
- The strong relationship between OCB and job satisfaction results in a positive impact on Employee performance and well-being.
- A positive relationship between Group cohesiveness and OCB increases the productivity of the co-worker and Coordinate activities within and across work groups.
- OCB enables appropriate usage of available resources for more productive purposes and scarce resources purely for maintenance functions.
- OCB strengthen the organizations' ability to attract and retain the best employees which results in increasing the stability of the organization's performance.
- Employees become more cooperative with superior and colleagues and exhibit more of extra-role behaviour.

Emerging Trends

- OCB increases Employees 'willingness to sacrifice their own comforts, so as to meet the organizational goals.
- The higher the level of OCB among employees, the lower the employer turnover and absenteeism.
- OCB brings in a positive impact on productivity, efficiency and customer satisfaction apart from enhancing cost reduction.
- OCB enhances productivity, free up resources, attract and retain good employees, and helps in creating a social capital.

12.7 OCB IN PRACTICE

The different forms of OCB (helping others, civic virtue and sportsmanship) contribute to promoting organizational effectiveness in different ways. Because these extra efforts enhance organizational performance even if OCBs are not rewarded by the employer, a great deal of effort has been made to understand why employees are willing to go the extra mile. "The extent to which employees exhibit OCB is a function of ability, motivation and opportunity" (Organ et al., 2006). The antecedents identified by the academicians and researchers can be used as guidelines to improve the rate of OCB. It becomes essential for the top management and supervisors to focus on motivating employees to engage in OCB. This could be achieved by various strategies as follows:

Sense of Belongingness: Top management should always work towards increasing the sense of belongingness among employees. This can be done by encouraging staff to attend office functions, get-togethers outside office premises, cultural events and office-wide birthday lunches.

Enlightening Supervisors: Launching an awareness programme on OCB among the supervisors will make them more aware of employee displays of OCB. They can include OCB in their performance appraisals, or devise their own casual/ informal reward system to encourage OCB. Supervisors should readily recognise and reward employees' OCB.

Recruitment – While recruiting freshers, the panel should look for an outgoing, attentive, enthusiastic employee with a positive outlook and 'can do' attitude, who will be more inclined to engage in OCB. The panel should also look for traits related to OCB in their psychometric testing. Such employees would definitely motivate others to perform OCB.

Environment: the working environment and the process should be designed such that it is conducive for employees to engage in OCB. Certain types of group norms (e.g. everyone should only do the minimum amount of work required, no one should talk to the supervisor) can hinder the employees' initiative and spontaneity, and this will decrease incidents of OCB.

Top Management: The top management should have an inclination towards OCB, thereby motivating the employees to engage in OCB. The process of the organization should be such that it encourages employees to exhibit extra-role behaviour.

12.8 MEASURING OCB

How do we measure OCB among Employees? The most popular dimensions used to measure OCB are found in the 5 factor model (Organ, 1988). Altruism and courtesy are grouped into individual-directed behaviour (OCB-I), while Conscientiousness, Civic Virtue and Sportsmanship are grouped into organisation- directed behaviour (OCB-O) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). The questionnaire is such that it targets each of these constructs. Statements such as 'I help my colleagues out wherever possible' would be OCB-I (altruism) while 'I don't mind staying back late to finish up my work even if I'm not paid' would be OCB-O (sportsmanship).

These surveys can be administered periodically so as to monitor OCB in the workplace, or to assess the effectiveness of interventions like training programmes. These constructs are also useful in terms of looking at OCB as having various dimensions. For Example if employees of an organization are lacking more in OCB-O than OCB-I, then the organization should focus on improving the OCB-O factors, such as improving civic virtue by encouraging workers to attend non-compulsory meetings.

One of the crucial elements of OCB is the fact that although it is often recognised and rewarded by managerial staff, employees do not necessarily make the connection between performing OCB and reward gain (especially OCB-I or altruism and courtesy-related behaviours), and do not expect rewards (Organ, 1997). Given that OCB has such a significant impact on the productivity and efficiency of the organisation, and workers do not expect to be reimbursed for their efforts, OCB should be considered an efficient way of improving organisational profitability and reducing costs through, for example, lowering rates of absenteeism and turnover. At the same time it increases employee performance and wellbeing, as cooperative workers are more productive, and OCB enhances the social environment in the workplace. Costs will be involved if managers actively seek out and reward workers for engaging in OCB, but these will have long-term benefits for the organisation. There may also be potential costs if supervisors require training, or a meeting that takes a few hours out of their schedule, to enhance their awareness of OCB. Evaluating OCB also involves costs in administering and analysing the results of an office- or department-wide survey. The evaluation component is critical if interventions are being implemented, especially if these interventions themselves involve costs (e.g. posters, office functions). Evaluations should take place before and after interventions have been introduced, to assess whether there has been a positive impact on the levels of OCB in the workplace.

12.9 OCB: POTENTIAL PITFALLS

There are three main issues the organizations have to be cautious of, when promoting OCB in workplace.

Gender Bias: The top management should be especially wary of implicit gendered expectations – research has shown that men are rewarded for OCB more than women (Heiman & Chen, 2005), because women are expected to engage in certain types of citizenship behaviours (such as being altruistic and courteous) more than men and are less recognised.

Organisational justice: If some supervisors reward an employee for exhibiting OCB more than others, perceived unfairness may increase among certain clusters of employees. This will not only lead to a decrease in OCB among those not rewarded for it but may have other side effects related to perceived injustice, such as an increase in counterproductive behaviour like theft and absenteeism (Marcus & Schuler, 2004).

Conditioning: If employees exhibit OCB regularly and if it is awarded regularly, the level of OCB in the organization would rise and after some time organization get habituated to it. The risk in this is, what was once considered OCB (e.g. working overtime) may become an internalised organisational norm. Then it is no longer spontaneous and voluntary but employees expected to do that.

12.10 SUMMARY

Organization Citizenship behaviours come in many dimensions and forms. Traditionally OCB is termed as a behaviour of the employee who 'goes above and beyond' the minimum requirements of his designation in the organization. It is also exhibited by an employee who takes the initiative and always offers to lend a hand to the needy. Such employees are always identified as knowledgeable, helpful as well as cooperative colleague. OCB is also said to be exhibited by a senior staff member who is able to roll with the punches. A Manager is said to be engage in OCB when he is friendly, approachable, and who offers to show the new employees around the office and introduces them to other staff. All of these types of OCB should be actively encouraged. Employees who engage in OCB, support the organisation through enhancing each other's performance and wellbeing, and this is reflected in reduced costs and increased profitability at the organisational level.

Exploration on the dimensions of OCB suggested that like most behaviors, OCB are also subject to multiple antecedents. That is, there is no single cause of OCB. Theoretical frameworks for all other classes of organizational behaviors, from job performance, turnover and absenteeism, multiple source of causation is considered. Therefore, it makes sense that applying the same rationale to OCB. It is hoped that testing these suggested antecedents in different organizational context will help the researchers to enrich the understanding of how various work conditions affect an employee's willingness to engage in OCB. When the antecedents of this particular class of behaviors are better understood, managers would be more effective to cultivate the OCB among their employees.

12.11 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) Write an essay on the evolution forms and dimensions of OCB.
- 2) Enlist the antecedents and implications of OCB
- 3) Discuss with examples how OCB can be measured.

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UNIT 13 ORGANISATIONAL INCLUSIVENESS

Objectives

After completion of the unit, you should be able to understand:

- the concept of diversity, characteristics and benefits of inclusion;
- what gender diversity is; and
- how an inclusive workplace can be developed.

Structure

- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Inclusion of People with Disabilities
- 13.3 Gender Diversity
- 13.4 Transgender and LGBT Inclusion
- 13.5 Summary
- 13.6 Self-Assessment Questions
- 13.7 Further Readings/ References

13.1 INTRODUCTION

With Globalization more companies acknowledged the concept of “Inclusivity” as it is making our workplace more diverse. Studies explore that Talent diversity is the key for business growth. The positive outcome of “Workforce Diversity” is it brings new thinking and ideas, talents, experiences, broader view points in an organization. To maximize the profit within a global framework organization need to become more diversified. Many companies feel pride among themselves for having diverse workforce group as it broad their skill base and they become more innovative and competitive. Companies need these days diverse workforce group. It helps them to relate with global customers and increase market opportunities. Also, they get broader range of perspective for issues and challenges, innovative and competitive advantage.

Diversity

The concept of Diversity embraces respect and acceptance of each individual’s differences. It acknowledges each individual is unique and can have differences in dimensions of gender, sexual orientation, race, ethnicity, socio-economic and demographic status, physical abilities, religious beliefs and political ideas and/ or other ideologies. Diversity explores these differences in safe, positive and nurturing environment to understand and embrace their rich dimension.

Everyone is valuable and has something to contribute to the equation of work. They are selected for their potential, talents, and experience for the job and company goals. Just because of their differences we cannot ignore their valid contributions. A successful organization draws its strength from the differences of Ideas and opinion and draws a supportable decision from it.

Diversity can be classified as Workforce diversity, Behavioral Diversity and Cognitive Diversity. Workforce diversity includes similarities and differences among people in terms of different cultural background, gender, race, ethnicity, age, religions, physical abilities and disabilities, sexual orientation, family status, economic background and status, demographics.

Behavioral Diversity encompasses of work styles, thinking styles, learning styles, communication styles, aspirations, beliefs, value system, changes in attitudes, and expectation of employees.

Cognitive Diversity focuses on diversity of thinking. It is represented by four dimensions i.e. perspective, interpretations, heuristics, and predictive models. Cognitive diversity results in high performance while dealing with complex tasks.

In addition to creating a workplace inclusive, many Future-thinking companies are seeking out talent of thinkers who has diversity of thought. As per Deloitte research underscores that diverse thinker's have innovative thinking and problem solving skills.

At Global level Business Leaders are making great efforts to create an atmosphere where opinion of each employee heard, and their suggestions are valued and considered. They are making policies for inclusive and accessible workplace with special reference to disable peoples, LGBT and women. Diversity exists in every part of the world, industrial sector and organization. However successful diverse organizations, share one common distinctive feature; they have learned how to get advantage of diversity to create a unified and inclusive global organizational culture. "At global scale inclusion allows for more effective talent management (attraction and retention), more effective alignment and team performance, and improved speed and efficiency across borders".

Inclusion is an integral element of diversity as inclusion works for the people who are slightly different. Countries which are much diverse will have to struggle for inclusion of everyone.

Embracing the culture of inclusiveness within an organization is a long-term process which includes changing attitudes of employees, practices and policies at workplace. Creating an inclusive organization requires broadening mindset, perspective and viewpoints of work staff. It opens the door to new prospect of worldviews which is more than hiring fresh talent. It is an on-going process to make the work better we do as well as the improving relationships we build with the different communities in organizational context.

Inclusive organization involves people from diverse background who brings with them larger range of skills and perspectives, which encourages the environment of innovative ideas, employee stability, increased productivity and new supporters in terms of vendor contacts, financial sources and employees.

Inclusive organizations recruit and retain diversified workforce and leaders to represent the racial and ethnic composition of the communities they serve. Furthermore these organizations are learning-centered workplaces that value the perspectives, overview and contributions of all people, and they incorporate the needs, opinion, and perspectives of communities of color into successful implementation of inclusive programs.

Inclusiveness is a golden rule that suggest welcoming and acknowledging the diversity which makes us different and unique and creates an environment that strengthen and encourage open transparent communication, innovatory original thoughts and ideas, fair decision-making, integrity and equity.

Characteristics of an Inclusive Organization:

It accepts diversity and implements inclusion strategy. In an inclusive organization, diversity is found at every level of hierarchy. People of different cultures, custom, tradition and beliefs, languages, rituals and lifestyles are accustomed in both the workforce as well as the customer segment, and are respected without any bias and pre conceived judgment. People are observed as individuals who have come together from different backgrounds but with a common goal and action to coordinate towards organization success.

Measurable Behavior and Competencies: Employees working at inclusive organization have well defined achievable goal, roles and responsibilities. They have measurable behaviors and competencies which are not affected by individual personal bias and opinion.

Transparent policies and procedures: Inclusive organization policies and procedures are transparent and equal for all. There are no hidden rules of behavior that may be apparent to some groups and unknown to others.

Consistency in practice of interactions with everyone: There is no two set of rules or contradiction in their behaviors. Rules are fairly applicable throughout the institution. No one group favoritism is done over another.

Learning Culture: Career Development Program is encouraged by top level management and supported for all employees at all levels. Robust Coaching and Mentoring programs of both formal and informal systems that meet the individual learning needs of all employees are implemented. Mistakes and their consequences are recognized and addressed. They are treated as learning opportunities rather than character flaws.

Conflict Resolution System at all levels: Inclusive organization recognizes that conflict is inevitable in organization which has diverse culture. Thus, they have well defined conflict resolution system which addresses conflict without biasness maintaining confidentiality and respects of all parties in a non – confrontational manner.

Active participant in community activities: Inclusive organization understands the fact that its Employees, managers, and customers all come from the community. They actively participate in community activities, and play a significant role in addressing its needs.

Vision, Mission and Core Values: People work for an organization because they believe in its vision, mission and goals. These organization delivers what they promise and maintain trust and promise of its customers as well as workforce.

Value of earned privilege: In these organizations, employees are treated with respect and been recognized for their work accomplishment and good behavior. They are never biased for their socio economic status or class.

Change Management: An inclusive organization recognizes that change is inevitable thus it constantly review its current and past practices and update it to meet the changing demands and needs of the industry, workforce, and customers.

Benefits of an Inclusive Organization

Higher Job Satisfaction: In an inclusive organization workers are appreciated for their work and are treated with respect. Employees feel valued themselves and they are more satisfied for their job.

Lower Turnover: People are treated as a valuable asset in inclusive organization. When employees are recognized and appreciated for their work it creates belongingness in them for the organization. Inclusive Organizations never take advantage of their people. It constantly makes efforts to show how much they value all contributors to retain them.

Higher Productivity: In inclusive organization people feel motivated and appreciated which enhances their productivity and of the company.

Higher Employee Morale: Inclusive organization values their employees and their work which creates happiness and job satisfaction among employees for their work. It boosts their morale and creates positive work environment in organization.

Improved Creativity and Innovation: When people work together in multi cultural environment, it brings innovative and creative ideas. When diverse ideas and thoughts come together it brings creative solution or next break through innovation.

Improved Problem Solving: When different mind work together in a diverse environment then there are chances of improved problem solving as diverse experiences interact their creative ideas provide better problem solutions.

Increased Organizational Flexibility: An inclusive organization has flexible approach. It adjusts quickly to the changes that are occurring at global level because it is diverse and collaborative. As conditions change, the inclusive organization can change along with them.

Better Employees: Inclusive organization creates, attracts and retains the best employees. They constantly involve themselves into improving and solving problem of employees through encouragement of growth and improvement. People want to be employed at an inclusive organization because these organizations are high performing, values multi culture and diversity, maintains high morale of its employees. They value and retain their employees which lead to better performance of company.

13.2 INCLUSION OF PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES

Where everyone is in hurry to get somewhere, very few people understand that there are people who may not be able to function the same way that we do. The differently able individuals find hardship in daily functions of work

commutations, moving inside work area and getting job opportunities. Disability could be by birth or acquired through illness, accidents or as part of natural aging process.

‘Inclusivity’ is a concept that has been around for many years but due to unfamiliarity only a few companies, corporate and organizations have adopted its principles. Companies now pay great attention to inclusivity principles to promote them. Corporate CEOs and global leaders understand that it’s worthwhile, practical and profitable to recruit, retain and promote the best talent regardless of disability.

Recruiting disable persons is accepted and recognized as a part of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and an essential element of inclusion for the diverse workforce.

Companies should also focus and review their recruitment policies for differently able people before their hiring, their accessibility or reach office/workstation, washroom accessibility, navigation of wheelchair or whichever assistive device they are using and ensure sensitivity of the other employees and orientation for them.

One of the main reasons why disable people are finding it difficult to gain job opportunities seems to be the mind-sets of the employers. Employers’ concerns about productivity, poor matches between the requirements of a job and the worker’s abilities, poor matches between employee potential and job requirements and concerns about legal liability.

A successful organization is not only an assortment of different individuals but also represents a range of skills set. A policy of inclusion of people from minority zones or those who are different is very vital for ensuring that the talents and capabilities of these stakeholders can be harnessed towards helping organizations achieve their goals. Persons with disabilities constitute a significant group which has the potential to contribute in a meaningful way to organizational performance if the right opportunities are made available. They can be reliable and productive employees who have the ability to acquire the job training, skills and expertise to perform a variety of task. A policy of including persons with disabilities in the workforce enables organizations to add to the diversity and creativity at the workplace. Besides contributing towards enhancing employee morale it is also a means for the organization to discharge its social responsibility.

Definition:

The World Health Organization defines disability as follow:

“Disabilities are an umbrella term, covering impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions. Impairment is a problem in body function or structure; an activity limitation is a difficulty encountered by an individual in executing a task or action; while a participation restriction is a problem experienced by an individual in involvement in life situations. Thus, disability is a complex phenomenon, reflecting an interaction between features of a person’s body and features of society in which he or she lives”.

Inclusion in the Workforce: Issues and Challenges

Person with disabilities have risk of being passed over in the competition for jobs and avenues for livelihood. In the face of negative attitudes and lack of access to proper education, transportation and financial resources, they are often in danger of living out a negative cycle wherein the low expectations from them are in danger of becoming self fulfilling prophecies.

There are several sets of challenges which hamper the rights of the disabled to have access to meaningful employment of which some of the majors are:

Inadequate Access to Education and Training

The barriers start early for the disabled persons in seeking employment opportunities in the form of unequal access to education and training opportunities. Often there is a lack of proper transportation facilities for the disabled to conveniently commute to educational institutions. Further, the educational institutions are not disabled friendly and it becomes difficult to navigate within premises. Also, in the absence of special teaching methodology, it can become difficult to keep up with the learning pace of other students in the class. As a result the entire learning experience becomes extremely challenging and there is a higher likelihood of dropping out from traditional education system.

Social and Psychological barriers

There may be prejudice and stereotyping about the capabilities of the disabled. The disabled person may himself or herself experience low self-esteem and lack of confidence in their capabilities. Sometimes over-protective families are not willing to allow them to venture out thereby adding to the lack of confidence. Also, at the workplace, acceptance from fellow workers may be slow in coming.

Discrimination in Hiring and Promotion by Employers

The disabled may be subjected to various forms of discrimination in hiring, working conditions and advancement opportunities. They may be hired at lower paying jobs or may even be offered lower payment for the same work. They may be expected to work on lower positions and in poorer working conditions. In the absence of limited bargaining power, the disabled may be compelled to accept these terms. Also, promotional avenues may not be very much available to them because of attitudinal and perceptual barriers on the part of the employers.

Inadequate Accessibility to Work Place

Lack of adequate and appropriate public transport facilities to the workplace may pose a major challenge for the disabled. Also, the workplace design may not be adequately sensitive to the needs of the disabled. Although the law requires employers that workplace are disabled friendly, the compliance may not be forthcoming in the letter spirit.

Other Barriers Faced by Disabled Job Seekers

The obstacles in job faced by disabled applicant seeking for job will vary from individual to individual, of course, depending on a whole set of factors.

The disability may restrict some people from doing certain jobs, and in some cases, from any particular job. But assuming that disabled job applicants, like most other prospective job seekers, only apply for jobs they know they can do.

The key areas of different barriers, discrimination and bias which prevent people with disabilities from working include physical, historical and attitudinal barriers, and these are just a few that might occur.

Physical and Communication Barriers Include

- Transport – inaccessible public transport or lack of car parking at work. This can be a significant barrier for people who are visually or physically impaired.
- Physical barriers – access to the building and facilities is an issue for people with mobility and visual impairments.
- Accessibility of information for people who are vision, learning or hearing impaired. This includes lack of specialized equipment and low vision aids, specialized training to use this equipment and the availability of sign language interpreters for interviews, training and meetings.
- No awareness for the job vacancy due to lack of information regarding mode of advertisement.
- Inaccessible online job boards, is the reason for disable persons not being able to see it.
- The application process being inaccessible – No suitable formats in the application form.
- The interview venue being inaccessible which includes infrastructure – ramps, lifts, restroom, uncluttered office setup for disable persons.

Historical Barriers can include

- The disable candidate may have not had the same opportunities in terms of education, work experience or opportunities for training as compared to other non disable candidates.
- Prejudice by employers may mean the candidate has not been offered remuneration and designation as high as they were capable of ignoring their true potential.

Attitudinal Barriers in Employers can include

Attitudes: Employers' lack of disability awareness and negative and stereotypical attitudes towards disability. In some workplaces employees with disabilities have been segregated from colleagues and customers.

- Interviewers' lack of expectations, and focus on a person's impairment rather than on their skills and abilities
- Colleagues' lack of understanding and flexibility. In some cases workers with impairments have been shunned and harassed.
- Public perceptions focusing on impairments rather than ability.

Emerging Trends

- Low self-esteem
- Overprotective families.

Stereotypes: The perceptions that people with disabilities are more likely to have accidents and be less productive. The low expectations of the people supporting the people with disabilities in finding work; they may stress the moral and legal obligations of employing people rather than the benefits and skills of people with disabilities.

- A confound perception by employer that somehow disabled applicants will not perform as good as non-disabled applicants.
- Employers are surrounded by myth and a wrong belief that disabled persons are less productive, take more sick offs, won't stay in job for a long, might be a health and safety hazard etc. These are proven myths and are far off from reality.
- The fear among employers that employing disabled persons will be expensive and increase their cost in making changes in the workspace. The reality is they only have to make few reasonable adjustments in their workspace which cost very minimum and very easily recovered from the average productivity of disabled workers.
- A lack of information and understanding among employers of available assistive technology in the market.
- Lack of confidence in employing and managing disabled people among managers, surrounded by fear of mistakes, what easy mode of training should be provided to them.

Workplace policies and procedures

- Inadequate recruitment and selection procedures
- Recruitment agencies imposing selection bias, even though an employer may promote an inclusive environment.
- Lack of awareness of the funding and workplace disability support available to employers.
- Lack of flexibility around hours worked.
- Lack of flexibility to work part-time.
- Restrictive work practices which are impossible for people with some impairments to observe.
- Support for employed people who acquire impairment.
- Lack of policy support.

Education and Training

- Unequal access to education and training, resulting in a relative lack of employable skills.
- Lack of previous experience.

- Adequate housing, education and access to support are all interrelated with employment. It is not possible to look for work if you do not have adequate and reliable support at home.

Attitudinal Barriers from Disabled Applicants can include:

- Disable Candidates may have lack of confidence due to rejection they may have faced many times on applying for job before due to their disability.
- Fear of discrimination, not being offered appropriate support, Lack of confidence, due to upbringing in society that equates “disabled” with “not good as other”.
- Insufficient skills to show in CV for interview and other job profiles as compared to Non Disable.

How to create an Inclusive and Accessible Workplace for Inclusion: Special Needs of Disable People –

An employer must know before hiring Employees with disability, how to create inclusive work environment which includes developing attitude, Infrastructure, policies and practices so that they can easily accommodate with other colleagues.

Inclusive Practices

A separate training for the persons with disability and a feedback to ensure their understanding must be done by HRs.

- For Hearing impairments an alternate communication via sign language interpreters should be arranged.
- For vision impairments relevant visual material along with elements for providing verbal explanations of the same should be accessible.
- Implement inclusive practices and policies in the work environment.
- By effectively engaging employees, with discussions regarding disability issues. Training to employees to enhance their understanding level and correct misconceptions.
- Behavior Training regarding disability etiquette, tips on interacting with people of disabilities.
- Disability awareness and sensitivity training that explore the biases, fears and myths that creates barriers for disable employees.

Inclusive Policies

- Policies formulation can be done after a proper plan for a reasonable accommodation as part of the overall budget to meet the requirements of disable employees.
- Alternative formats of communicative materials for the visually impaired to read - e formats or brailled formats as job application form and policies manual should be included.

Inclusive Environment

- To provide access for a disable individual applicant to participate in the job application process.
- Create an accessible work premises with all necessary equipments and facilities for persons with disability.
- Always conduct meetings in accessible place along with interpreters for verbally and visually impaired employees who can explain them. This can create inclusion for person with disability.
- Conduct employee engagement activities, outings keeping persons with disabilities in mind in places that are accessible to them. Never create such fun events in which they cannot participate and make barrier in inclusion.
- A team of individuals to plan and dedicate time assessing, planning and implementing accessibility modifications at workplace.
- Seek expert advice in accessibility to act as a consultant for changes.
- Assess needs and implement changes for individuals with disabilities within your workplace.

Inclusive Infrastructure

- Ramps, Lifts and Restroom in the office building should be accessible for the person with disability.
- Office set should be well organized and uncluttered so that visually impaired persons find it comfortable to walk around and access resources easily.

Areas in which modifications may occur for the disable persons include,

- 1) Parking Lots (handicapped parking spaces)
- 2) Entrances and Exits
- 2) Fire Alarms and Emergency Exits
- 3) Conference rooms and shared work space
- 4) Desks and Personal Work Space
- 5) Hallways
- 6) Stairwells
- 7) Elevators
- 8) Restrooms
- 9) Cafeterias
- 10) Electronic and Information Technology Accessibility which includes Web-based intranet and internet information and applications, operating systems, Software application, E mail and other electronic correspondence, Software applications and operating systems, Telecommunications products, Video

and multimedia products, Desktop and laptops, closed products such as calculators, printers, photo copier machines and job applications dash boards.

Benefits of Accessible Workplace

- An accessible workplace increases productivity among workers and helps in optimum utilization of job candidates with disabilities.
- It creates a workplace culture of inclusiveness.
- It boosts morale and loyalty of other staff by creating committed diverse workforce.
- An accessible workplace for creating job opportunities for disable people enhances company' image among its customer, community and suppliers.

Removing or neutralizing these barriers by providing accessible workplace, support and accommodations to disable persons with health conditions or impairments will help them to find employment opportunities, to stay at work, or return to work, if absent due to an illness or injury. This is true that many persons with disabilities are capable of working, provided their special needs are welcome and accommodated in the workplace by employers. Few examples of companies that have been constantly strive to modify its recruitment and retention policies for inclusive workplace culture:

- A leading Food and agricultural company CEO Greg Page, says “The world is becoming increasingly global, visible, and transparent. As Cargill continues to expand worldwide, our differences—from our culture and work habits to communication style and personal preferences—are becoming even more essential to our business strategy. We are working hard to create an environment in which all employees are valued and respected, including those with disabilities. Our Disability awareness Council partners with our company’s leadership to build and sustain a supportive culture with the goal of employing individuals with disabilities.
- “Employers in Singapore are gradually becoming more receptive to hiring people with disabilities. They believe the reasons for their change are a result of our improved economy, public education about the disabled and enable fund”.
- “At AT&T Cynthia Brinkley, Senior Vice President, Talent Development & Chief Diversity Officer says,” We know that diverse, talented, and dedicated people are critical to our success, so we seek out individuals from diverse backgrounds and give them opportunities to grow and develop in their careers. We have long been a leader in providing an inclusive work environment, offering performance-based rewards, and creating cultures of excellence”.
- A SCS subsidiary, Trusted Hub, has been employing disabled people for several years, and we have found them to be very dedicated to their work, much focused and very efficient. Trusted Hub is currently one of the largest employers of disabled people.

These examples show that Companies have been acknowledging that one of the best ways to tap into the disable customer segment market is to ensure it is represented in your workforce. Disable workforce helps business to understand and meet the requirements of this important and expanding customer base. Research shows that consumers both with and without disabilities favor businesses that employ disable people.

Activity 1

1) Explain the definition of Disability as per WHO?

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2) What are the issues, challenges and Barriers faced by Disabled Job Seekers?

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3) How can an employer create an inclusive and accessible job environment for persons with disability?

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13.3 GENDER DIVERSITY

Now days, Gender diversity in the organizational perspective is not only limited to equal treatment and acknowledgement of both males and females work force at workplace but it also include Transgender, LGBT (Sexual Minorities). Diversity in genders adds value to a company due to the different perspectives, credentials and backgrounds of individuals. Focusing on gender diversity in the workplace is an essential step for building a great organization practice. Advancing and accelerating gender diversity is a major focus area that organizations should look to make significant development for success of true gender equality.

The global economy moves diversity to the top of the agenda. Immigration, Worker migration (guest workers), gender and ethnic heterogeneity continue to dramatically change the composition of the workforce. There is a growing demand for equivalent authority for these workers and other groups like lesbians, gays, bi sexual and transgendered (LGBT).

On the one hand, heterogeneous workforce has been increasing, for several well-known reasons. Shifts in labour force participation have changed the composition of employment in favour of women, LGBT (Sexual Minorities). New patterns of international immigration have brought more cultural and ethnic diversity to the organization.

Many transgender workers suffer due to lack of proper organizational support; and competence deficits exist in supporting and welcoming transgender employees' needs. Research shows that Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) employees face challenges and obstacles in international position based jobs and practices. Human resource management policies and practices require organizations to strike a balance between opposing forces or influences. Hence HRM policies and practices in the area of emigrant management need to be better equipped to address entanglements of an increasingly diverse workforce.

Inclusion with Special Reference to Women

A review by Mercer exhibit in its Human Capital report: "Women are still significantly underrepresented at all levels in the workforce worldwide. Only 60%-70% of the eligible female population participates in the global workforce, while male participation is in the high 80's. The disparity between female and male representation is even higher in top management roles. Women make up less than 5% of CEOs at Fortune 500 companies; hold less than 25% of management roles, and just less than 19% of board roles globally [6].

Women' ratio is still significantly disproportionate at all levels in the workforce worldwide. Personal biasness against women in organizations can occur at each stage of decision-making related to recruitment and selection, job role assignments, training and promotion opportunities, pay performance evaluation.

Further, in masculine domains, a higher standard of performance is fixed up for women compare to men. Women are often underrepresented especially at senior positions in organizations. Managers give women fewer challenging roles, fewer training opportunities and promotion potential compared with men. Thus, men have a faster ascent in organizational hierarchies than women instead of fact they have same level of qualification.

Gender stereotypes, that is, expectations of what women and men are like, and what they should be like, are one of the most powerful projections activated when people confront each other. A large number of corporations are queasy to hire and promote female employees for senior positions.

Having a diverse workforce is increasingly being recognized as harmonious in improving the firm's performance, and also an obligation that organizations can no longer choose to ignore. It is well recognized fact that that diversity adds both tangible and intangible value to a company, even if it requires working through the issues and minor costs that sometimes accompany it. Companies are increasingly shifting to inclusion, over and beyond that of diversity.

Inflation in numbers and shares of women in the workplace may be the most important element of diversity at the national level. In most of the world their changing roles and performance have a simultaneous effect at home well as

their work. Employers are beginning to realize that women are playing an increasing important role in today's economy hence, gender diversity is vital to any workplace. Organizations are incorporating inclusive work culture and taking actions to address gender diversity issue to get the business gain.

Those Gender-Diverse teams which include women perform better than single-gender teams for several reasons:

- Generally in gender diverse teams, Men and Women have different overview, perspective, observation, ideas and market perception, which facilitate better decision making and better performance at the business unit level.
- A gender-diverse workforce provides easier access to resources, such as broad credit sources, various sources of information, and deeper industry knowledge. It helps in building diverse customer base at company.
- Gender diversity helps companies in engagement and retention of talented women. Companies cannot afford to ignore women who comprise half of the potential workforce and helps to be a competitive player in the global economy.
- Gender Diversity improves branding which is more impressive today than ever before. How your brand image is represented to your customers, your employees, your investors and your future talent pool is a key definer of overall success.
- Every individual have different talent, trait and skill to represent at an organization, without this diverse attribute businesses wouldn't develop, adapt, innovate and progress. If an organization eliminates, decreases or not engage female workforce within a workplace it will probably lose out half of the talent pool available, and the unique talent and skill that female workers can bring from entry level through to boardroom.

For these reasons organization these days making gender diversity a priority. The key to achieve gender diverse workforce balance is Inclusion.

Barriers to Inclusion: Glass Ceiling

Definition: The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission explained the term glass ceiling as “the unseen, yet non breakable barrier that keeps minorities and women from growing to the upper level of the corporate hierarchy, regardless of their credentials, qualifications or achievements.

It is referred glass because it is usually not a visible boundary, and a woman may not be familiar of its existence until she “hits” the barrier. The invisible hindrance women generally faces when they attain mid-management positions. In theory, nothing prevents a woman from being promoted, but women can see the higher they step in the organizational hierarchy, the less promotions, pay raises, and opportunities they get in comparison they should have due to invisible obstacles that prevent them from rising further.

The phrase ‘Glass Ceiling’ refers to a hidden barrier that prevents someone from accomplishing further success. Glass ceilings are most often observed in

the organizations and are usually a barrier to achieving power and success equal to that of a more assertive employees group. A woman who has better skills, talent, credentials and education than her male colleague but is obviously being passed over for promotions due to her gender is a better example to explain this term.

Gender Pay Gap: The gender pay gap is generally the difference between pay earnings of male and female. As of April 2016, the wage gap in the United States was “79 cents for every dollar paid to men, amounting to an annual gender wage gap \$10,762”.

Glass Escalator: It can be defined as how more men are joining female dominated areas, such as health care sector jobs and elementary school teaching. Within these job responsibilities, the men are skipping right past women to reach the top. Similarly to if they were on an escalator and a woman was stepping each stair to progress in her career for promotion. Men are being offered more promotions than women although women have worked just as hard, they are still not being getting offered the same chances as men are in few situations termed as glass escalator.

Sticky Floor: The “sticky floor” refers to women who accept low-pay, less promotional positions such as junior clerical and assistants, healthcare, childcare jobs. Sticky floors can be described as the arrangement that women are, compared to men, less likely to start to move up the job and career ladder. Thereby, this circumstance is related to gender differences at the bottom of the wage distribution.

Obstacles and Barriers Arise Due To:

Prejudice: Men are promoted for their career advancement and in pay more quickly than women with equivalent qualification and achievements.

Resistance to Women’s Leadership: People view successful female managers as more deceptive, tough, egoistic, and hard to take than successful male managers.

Leadership Style Issues: Many female leaders struggle to harmonize qualities people prefer in women such as compassion for others rather than with qualities like assertion and control which people think leaders need to succeed.

Family Demands: Women are still the ones who break off their careers to handle family responsibilities. Due to overloaded work, they left with less time to engage in the social networking essential for career growth advancement.

Pay Inequity. The higher up the ladder female go the greater difference between male and female wages they find.

Less Experience in the Workforce due to childbirth in employment span most women are not able to return to the level of profile and pay they held before their pregnancy stage and are often not kept in the loop during their absence.

Part-Time Workforce Women comprise the bulk of the part-time workers thereby they gain low hourly rates and less accumulated superannuation.

Gender Role Orientation: It has been experience that the work organizations tacitly approve and promote that the working women accept submissive and non leadership roles and men main leader roles.

Gender Stereotyping(s): Stereotypes and perceptions of Indian women in the workplace appear to have a significant negative impact on the position of working managers. The study suggests that male Indian managers are viewed, stereotypically as working in the areas of sales, marketing and production. Being good leaders, bosses and decision makers and handling challenging assignments. On the other hand Indian women are viewed as working in HR and administrative positions at low to junior levels and in field such as fashion and beauty.

Sexual Harassment: The career woman is often seen as an object by the male co-workers. Work place harassment occurs in many forms ranging from taunts/ comments to actual physical transgressions.

Queen Bee Syndrome: Sometimes women managers do not promote women employees. This is a big irony because man promotes man but women might not promote women even though they are from the same gender.

Workplace Incivility: Many a times, it happens that the working women are not given the due respect and care they deserve from their male co-workers. This is because many of the male co-workers have the same psychology and mental conditioning that the women occupy a subjugated position both at home and beyond.

Sticky Floor Effect: If a women reaches at a managerial position or a leadership positions she is not adequately compensated. The main reason behind this is that because there is lack of alternative job offers available to such career woman in comparison to men.

Overcoming the Barriers

Career practitioners, HR Professionals and Top level Managers are actively participating in building strategies that can help women to break the glass ceiling, by pass men moving up the glass escalator, or help them avoid falling from the glass cliff. Few of them are:

Professional Networking: Join a professional industry-related association to keep advance with your career field and to meet new professionals. Gain more visibility by volunteering to serve on the board meetings or annual conferences. It is also important to expand network outside and within organization to increase visibility and understand what is going on in other areas of the company.

Guidance of Mentor or Sponsor: A mentor can help guide, connect with other influential people, and help to overcome the hurdles on the way to the top. Typical areas where a mentor can help for development include time management, stress management, prioritizing, teamwork, and communication skills.

Self Promotion: Self-promotion is one of the most important attributes for getting ahead, but should also learn to share the skill of your talents and successes.

Helping Drop Outs Women: For women who decide to take break from her career/workplace to raise children or care for elderly parents, career practitioners can help them create a plan to maintain marketability while taking time off from full time employment. Organization encourages HR Professionals to stay in contact with former colleagues and maintain membership in professional association, to help them explore volunteer options for contractual or part-time to keep their skills up-to-date.

Women' Empowerment

Inclusive organizations focus on attracting, evolving, and advancing women and underrepresented populations by removing obstruction, gaining stakeholder buy- in, creating inclusive leaders, and developing events for growth.

While this is important for organizations, regardless of women empowerment, an organization that fosters an inclusive policies and friendly culture where the co-workers can share easy relationships, work closely with each other, and collaborate both on a personal and professional levels helps women to interact across genders without a fear of being unaccepted or judged.

Entrusting in women delivers high social and economic returns. More importantly, it's also the right thing to do. For too long, women faced biasness in equal pay for equal work. Too many times, male hiring managers have ignored qualified women for C-Suite positions – CEO, CFO, CTO etc. Too frequently, capital based venture firms have ignored potential of female entrepreneurs. An inclusive organization focuses on women empowerment by creating more women in management positions, female investors and entrepreneurs.

Few organizations that follow their individual ways, in promotion of gender equality in their work culture are doing much more endeavor to end inequality against women. By empowering women, they're expanding opportunities for women within organizations for their growth.

13.4 TRANSGENDER AND LGBT INCLUSION

Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender (LGBT) employees comprise one of the largest, but least studied minority groups in the workforce. Issues related to lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) people such as workplace inclusion, creation of EAG (Employee Affinity Groups), and Diversity initiatives for LGBT community are being addressed in organizations more often now than ever before. A lack of LGBT supportiveness, instead, reduces the size of the talent pool available for recruiting. While, the major challenges to be studied for the LGBT movement include the lack of an umbrella organization, lack of understanding within the LGBT community and a lack of unity due in part because of class differences.

In a study it was found that, in some countries or regions, being open about one's sexual orientation – transgender or homosexual identity entail a significantly lower chance to receive a positive response following a job interview. In addition, the experience of heterosexism results in low psychological health and unexpected issues pertaining to work-associated outcomes which could be related to formal or informal discrimination related to career, discomfort at

workplace. They could witness homophobic incidents, an increased focus on their own identity management strategies, and distraction from workplace.

Some studies theorize that gay and lesbian youths find less role models as managers, supervisors and in leadership roles at their workplaces. As a consequence, valuable psychological and motivational resources are missing for them. Hence, individual strategies for identity management need to be taken up for them.

Some studies about bisexual people show that this group often faces dual discrimination and exclusion: both from heterosexual and homosexual communities. As a result, bisexual people hide their sexual orientation at the workplace more comparatively heterosexual and homosexual.

Today's most successful businesses are admitting the value of transgender workers as an essential aspect of corporate diversity and inclusion drives. Human Resources and Diversity professionals have discovered that a meaningful transgender system can readily be incorporated into an existing Diversity & Inclusive program to achieve success. Organizations are also finding that transgender issues come with presumption that require specific attention and necessitate new changes to achieve an inclusive workplace.

In Historical times, lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) people have been heavily disgraced, harassed and discriminated. However, now most western countries have made appreciable moves to afford legal rights for them.

Earlier, Gender identity and orientation are the issues that are not openly discussed in Indian culture/Society or at the workplace. For many parts of Indian society and culture LGBT identity has been seen as an evil of foreign countries— with the common held belief that LGBT individuals did not exist in Indian history and culture but came from western influence.

Having sexual Orientation/ gender identity on the company's anti harassment policy means that they are protected against overt/covert discrimination/abuse/ harassment/ for being LGBT. They have the right to report their colleagues / Managers to the relevant HR authorities if they feel they are being targeted, harassed or discriminated because of their gender identity. The policy is also supposed to protect them against any repercussion for making such a complaint. Google, Microsoft, IBM, Goldman Sachs, JP Morgan, Cisco, Citibank, etc and some Indian firms such as Wipro, TCS, Infosys and Mind Tree have sexual orientation on their anti – harassment policy. Still gender identity is not covered by many of them.

Definition

Transgender is an umbrella term for persons whose gender identity, expression or behavior does not confirm to that typically associated with the gender to which they were assigned at birth. Gender identity refers to a person's internal sense of being male, female or other; gender expression refers to the way a person communicates gender identity to others through behavior, attire, hairstyle and expression of body.

“Trans” is sometimes used as shorthand for “transgender.” While transgender is generally a good term to use, not everyone whose appearance or behavior

is gender-nonconforming will identify as a transgender person. The ways that transgender people are talked about in popular culture, academia and science are constantly changing, particularly as individuals' awareness, knowledge and openness about transgender people and their experiences grow.

How to make Welcoming and Inclusive workplace for Transgender and LGBT employees:

LGBT inclusion can be attained by creating a place which provides Safety, Acceptance and Equality, ensuring safety from harassment, bullying and violence, acceptance in fostering understanding, building relationship, and equality to ensure respect.

LGBT supportive policies leads to less discrimination, openness at workplace leads to positive business relationship, greater commitment and positive workplace behavior and attitudes.

Hence, HR Professionals should implement policies for equal treatment of all employees and maintain their dignity and respect. This is essential in Human Resource Development (HRD) which makes a workplace happier for higher growth and satisfaction as well creates a diversified and inclusive workplace for all employees' especially sexual minorities (LGBT) who are facing it from a long time.

Few guidelines which can be followed within an organization for creating an inclusive workplace are:

- Avoid making presumptions about gender identity or sexual orientation.
- Respect a person's identification and self-label, and respect a person's name and pronunciation. Practice offering your own pronouns when you meet new people.
- Engage transgender person in conversation and get to know them as you would anyone rather than assuming he wants to discuss only about trans issues. Educate more about transgender identity and gender diversity with resources available.
- Don't label "lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender" if you are only talking about sexuality. Recognize that a person can identify with more than one of those labels of sexual orientation.
- Review and frame transgender inclusive policies and procedures at workplace.
- Designate gender neutral bathroom(s) and label all bathrooms in a welcoming way with proper signs at space point the way to all bathroom options.
- Do continuing education to employees specifically on transgender issues and gender diversity - showing film and discussion.
- Learn about local and federal laws and how to implement them to make workplace inclusive. e.g., non-discrimination policies around employment-name changes; and gender marker changes.

Emerging Trends

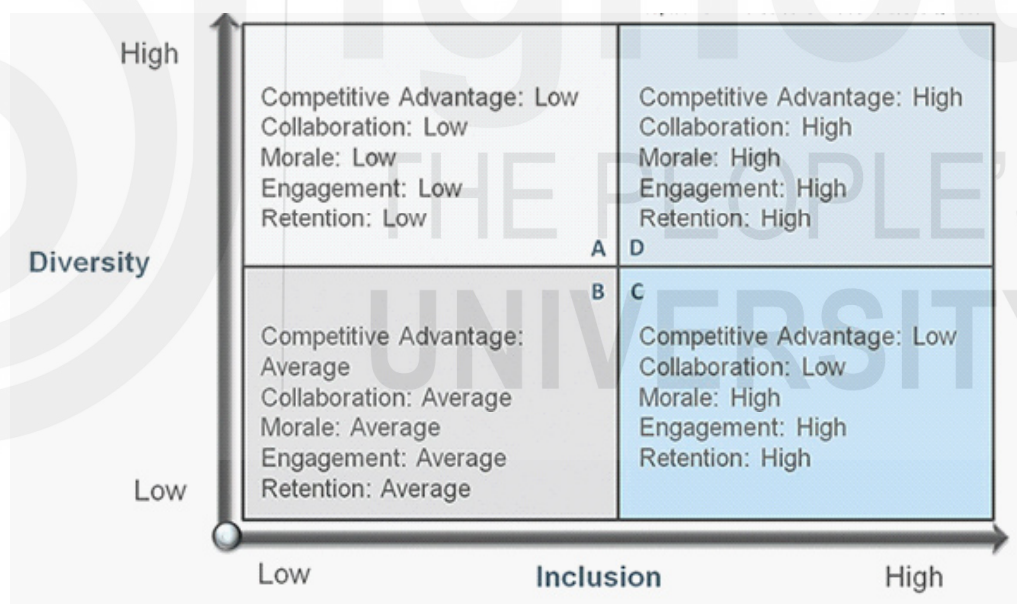
- Follow the leadership of local and national transgender organizations non – discrimination and anti – harassment policies include “Gender Identity or Expression”.
- Prohibit discrimination against transgender employees by including “gender identity or expression”.

The Inclusive Workplace: The Practice Model

Box 13.1 Provides a summary illustration of the main barriers and benefits of implementing the inclusive workplace.

Box 13.1: Barriers and Benefits of Inclusion

Barriers	Benefits	
	Individuals	Organization
• Discrimination • Prejudice • Perception of threat to job security	• Access to advancement and job promotions. • Improved income and benefits • More decision-making power.	• Business growth and productivity. • Cost savings (e.g. lower turnover, less absenteeism). • Positive image with employees, customers and financial institution.



The chart 13.1: Shows the Relationship between Diversity and Inclusion

The upper left quadrant (A) shows high diversity but low inclusion. The lower left quadrant (B) represents low diversity and low inclusion. The bottom right quadrant (C) shows high inclusion but low diversity. Quadrant (D) shows high inclusion and high diversity.

Organizations that practice inclusion as well as diversity are able to experience high levels of collaboration, engagement and retention which provide a competitive advantage.

Activity 2

Organisational Inclusiveness

- 1) Explain the reasons why these days importance of women in gender diverse team increasing?

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- 2) What are the barriers and obstacles for women at organizational level?

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- 3) What is Women Empowerment?

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- 4) Define the term “Transgender”?

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- 5) How HR can make Inclusive and welcoming work environment for LGBT and Minorities?

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13.5 SUMMARY

Attempts have been made by the corporate sector to enhance and improve the gender disparity and unequal power distribution. Many companies, in fact, have employed measures such as crèches, flexi-time, refresher programs, orientation on company policies for Women and Minorities, Transgender, LGBT Community only scratch the surface of the real problems. However,

there is need and requirement for increased awareness for the contribution of women and the need to nurture their talent at the workplace.

Organizations are realizing, Persons with disabilities constitute a significant group which has the potential to contribute in a meaningful way to organizational performance if the right opportunities are made available. They can be reliable and productive employees who have the ability to acquire the necessary training, skills and expertise to perform a variety of jobs.

There is need for gender sensitization. There is need for gender equity training. This must be done by the work organizations. This should not be seen extravagant cost. This should be seen as an opportunity for job retention for female employees and LGBT group because as it will enhance job satisfaction and reduce job stress. Women and LGBT employees must be seen as an asset. It is a known fact that women and LGBT employees provide more value altruism, team building, and reliability in work than men.

Gender sensitization can be done by organizing seminars on women and LGBT equality, etc. There should be projected effort to break and dissolve glass ceiling and sticky floor. This can be done by having special women and HR cell within the work organizations who must emphasize their policy of inclusive growth. Moreover, certain facilities for making the lives of women and transgender must be provided by the work organization such cab pickup, ATM machines, works from home etc. All this should be seen as an investment towards an inclusive growth system.

13.6 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) What is inclusion and why organization inclusiveness important these days?
- 2) Explain Disability and how can an employer create inclusive and accessible workplace for them?
- 3) Explain gender diversity and why there is a need for gender diverse teams these days arising at organizations?
- 4) What kinds of barriers and obstacles women are facing at their workplaces and how can they overcome those set barriers?
- 5) What is Glass Ceiling and Women' Empowerment?
- 6) Explain the definition of Transgendered and LGBT? Why there is a need to include this group in workforce at organizational level?
- 7) How HRs can make inclusive and welcoming work environment for Transgendered and LGTB group?

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UNIT 14 DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

Objectives

After going through unit, you should be able to:

- understand the concept of diversity management
- explain the need and levels of diversity
- identify the reason for diversity
- implement diversity management strategy.

Structures

- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Meaning of Diversity Management
- 14.3 Need for Diversity in Organisation
- 14.4 Levels of Diversity
- 14.5 Discrimination
- 14.6 Biographical Characteristics
- 14.7 What is Diversity at Workplace?
- 14.8 The Reason Behind Rise of Diversity
- 14.9 Diversity is a Threat or an Opportunity?
- 14.10 Implementing Diversity Management Strategy
- 14.11 Case Study
- 14.12 Summary
- 14.13 Self Assessment Questions
- 14.14 Further Readings/ References

14.1 INTRODUCTION

We are not all the same. This obvious fact is sometimes forgotten by managers that these differences need to be recognized and capitalized on so that desired result can be obtained from employees. With effective diversity management an organisation can make the best out of possible pool of employee's skills, abilities and ideas. Apart from taking advantage of these differences, it is a duty of manager to recognise and assess that diversity among workforce can sometimes end up with miscommunication, misunderstanding and conflict. This unit will try to explain how individual differences like gender, race, age, ethnicity and abilities can influence their individual performance and organisation's performance as a whole. This unit will also try to answer a question that how managers can create awareness about characteristics of employees and management of diverse workforce.

14.2 MEANING OF DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

The Business dictionary defines diversity as “the practice of addressing and supporting multiple lifestyle and personal characteristics within a defined group.

Management activities include educating the group and providing support for acceptance for various racial, cultural, societal, geographic, economic and political backgrounds”.

Diversity is the vast concept that inculcates various other differences such as educational background, sexual orientation, religion, physical or medical disability, parental status, work experience, pregnancy and age.

Company’s policy must ensure and describe that there should not be any kind of discrimination or harassment on the basis of these difference in workforce. Diversity management is not only about observing legal and political requirements but also promoting culture and comfort within organisation with differences.

Companies need to analyse and recognize that social diversity develops richness to community of company and enhances quality of life of all individual at workplace. Companies should consider and welcome these differences and celebrate achievements and differences. Diversity at workplace can ensure advantageous environment at work with the benefit of Innovation, improved morale, team work, harmony amongst workers.

14.3 NEED FOR DIVERSITY IN ORGANISATION

In the recent times the most prominent question in every organisation is that “why should the organisation care about Diversity?” . Several scholar and authors have defined diversity issue in various perspective in the last few decades, and among them J. Fink, D. Pastore and H. Riemer (2003) developed a mechanism or framework that differentiates between non compliant organisation at lower level and pro-active at the highest level, going through “Compliant “ and “Reactive”. The framework is given below in the figure 14.1.

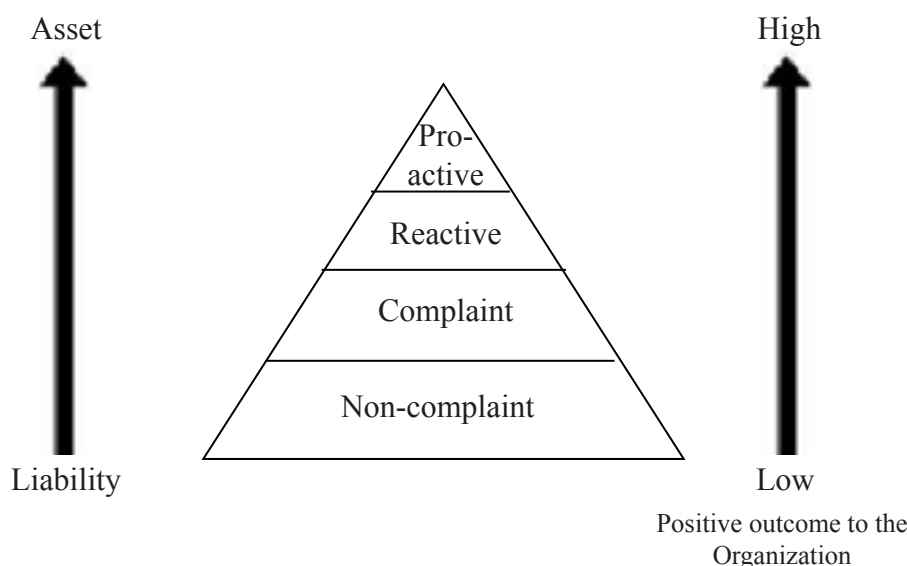


Figure 14.1: Framework of Compliant and Reactive

Emerging Trends

The framework explains that Diversity “Liability” at inception can be “Asset” to an organisation where diversity management goes from “non compliant” to “proactive”. Diversity is threat to an organisation which is non compliant on the other hand proactive organisation engages in include employees in various decision making process. Proactive organisation reaps the benefit out of Diversity Management and drains profit out of opportunity.

Various facts suggest that diversity management is need of an hour because diversity is an issue all pervasive in an organisation that can prove to be benefit or challenges to them and thus influences performance.

The understanding of diversity in organisation can help management leaders to incorporate their team member’s diversity to manage retaining good employees and attracting good talent.

Activity 1:

Explain the concept of diversity in workplace in your own words citing examples.

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14.4 LEVELS OF DIVERSITY

The most prominent type of diversity visible at most of the organisations is Surface level diversity and Deep level diversity. Let us discuss about each of them with the help of an example.

Surface level diversity; the differences that are conspicuous or easily noticeable are called Surface level diversity. These differences can be Age, ethnicity, gender, race, culture, language, disability etc. as this type of diversity is easily noticeable so it can be measured easily and thus recruiters or managers may discriminate on the basis of these differences. For example, assumption of a recruiter that performances decrease as age increases he/she may prefer to hire young professional. Surface level diversity is innate and thus difficult to alter or change. For example racial differences or gender differences cannot be scaled down to zero.

Deep level diversity; these differences are communicated through verbal and non verbal behaviour and thus these differences are not easily noticeable and hence cannot be measured. Personal differences in attitudes, values, beliefs and personality are deep level diversity differences. These differences become progressively more important to establish level of similarity as people get to know each other and therefore deep level differences usually starts with identifying surface level differences. For e.g. a person belonging to a minority ethnic group may be treated differently by the others since his culture and language might be different. But as everyone interacts with him more, they seem to forget the surface level differences and then they begin to notice his differing values and beliefs and later on, his personality differences.

14.5 DISCRIMINATION

Diversity develops an opportunity for an organisation and thus diversity management also means efforts to eliminate unfair discrimination. To discriminate is to make a note of Differences, which sometimes in itself isn't necessarily bad.

Knowing a difference that one employee is more qualified than another helps in making hiring decision. Knowing the leadership ability of an employee helps in making promotional decision. Usually when we talk about discrimination, though, we mean allowing our behaviour to be influenced by stereotypes about groups of people. Unfair discrimination assumes everyone in a group same rather looking at individual characteristics. Discrimination can sometimes be hazardous to an organisation and employees. Following Table provides definition and examples of some forms of discrimination in organisations.

Table 14.1: India's Diversity Concerns

Diversity attribute	Diversity	Illustrative special concerns of this group
Gender	Gender diversity	New mothers — remote working and networking opportunities
Age	Over half a billion Indians are less than 25 years of age	Youth — mentoring and fair HR practices; older employees — re-skilling on new technologies
City and hinterland	Rapid urbanisation and growing rural economy Over 800-million people spending more than \$425 billion	Employees from hinterland - handholding to assimilate within urban areas and culture, e.g. English language training City folks - understanding of rural market
Geography and religion	India is geographically and culturally diverse. Buying patterns are different	Respect and understanding of other cultures
GDP distribution	Agriculture share is reducing, industrial share is around 30%, services over 50%	In such a rapid transition national human force will need orientation to adapt
Physically challenged	Disabled persons constitute about 2% of the total population in India**	1. Equal and fair opportunities and fair promotion policies
Marital status	Single parents, widow(er), divorced, live-in couples	Sensitivity and fairness
Sexual orientation	Here, most of the world is still in the wilderness	1. Life partner benefits 2. Sensitive and non-discriminatory
Nationality	Not a significant area yet	Training to succeed in India

**Report: Disabled Persons in India by National Sample Survey Organisation; Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India

Source; Nandan Savnal, "Workplace Diversity: Managing a competitive Advantage", Indian Management, Nov 2012, Vol. 51, issue 11, p.22.

Most of the actions are not part of many organisations as they are prohibited by law, thousands of discrimination cases are filed every year and many more go unreported. As discrimination has increasingly come under both legal scrutiny and social disapproval, most overt forms have faded, which may have resulted

in an increase in more covert forms like incivility or exclusion (L.M. Cortina, 2008).

Discrimination can take many shapes and its effect can be varied as organisational context and personal biases of its members.

Exclusion or incivility is difficult to eliminate as they are impossible to observe and may arise because of ignorance of action of actors. Whether intentional or accidental, discrimination can be seriously negative for employers, causing reduced productivity and citizenship behaviour, increased turnover and negative conflicts. Unfair discrimination can eliminate qualified job candidate from initial hiring and promotions.

Diversity is broad term and the phrase workplace diversity can refer to any characteristics that make people different from one another.

14.6 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

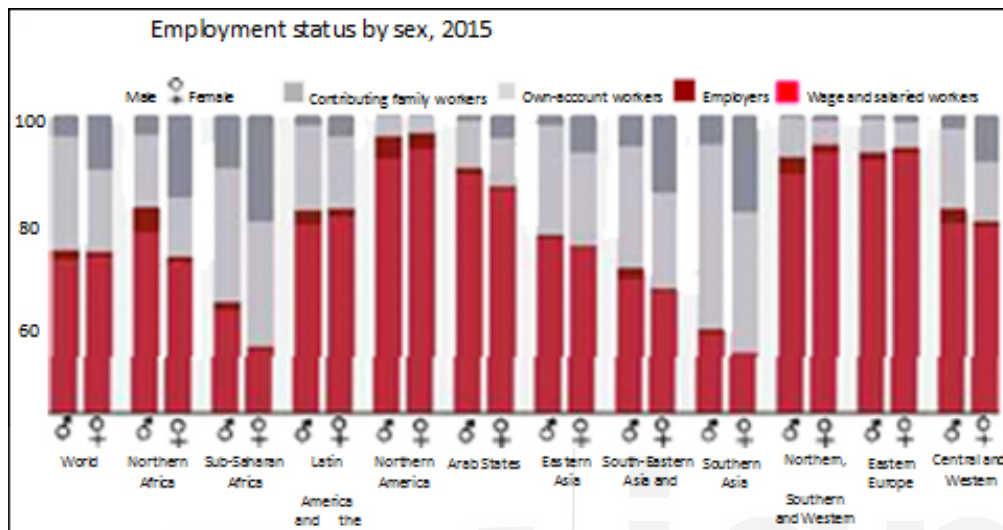
The most common ways in which employees differ the most are biographical characteristics such as gender, race, age, disability and length of service. Variation in these innate characteristics may emerge as a basis of discrimination against classes of employees, so it is worth knowing how closely related they actually are to important work outcomes. Many are not as important as people believe, and far more variation occurs within groups sharing biographical characteristics than between them.

Age: employers have mixed feeling or perception for aged workers. It is sometimes observed that aged workers bring experience, judgement, strong ethics and commitment to quality. But at the same time they are not flexible, resistant to new technology, and does not love change in job design. The older you get, your performance deteriorates but you are less likely to leave or change your job. The opposite is seen for younger employees who are better perform, love change and diversity and do not feel hesitated to leave or change a job in search of better employment opportunities.

As workforce gets older and aged they become specialised in certain types of jobs and hence fewer job opportunities. Age is inversely related to Absenteeism. As people grow old their presence at workplace regularly starts diminishing. Older employees have lower rates of avoidable absence than do younger employees. One large scale study of more than 8,000 employees in 128 companies found that an organisational climate favouring age discrimination was associated with lower level of commitment to the company. The lower of commitment was in turn related to lower level of organisational performance (F. Kunze, S.A. Boehm and H. Bruch, 2011).

Sex: Women performs as well as men do at work. This issue initiate more misconception, debates and unreported opinions. There are no consistency male-female differences in problem solving ability, analytical skills, competitive drive, motivation, sociability or learning ability (E.M. Weiss,G. Kemmler,E.A Deisenhammer, W.W. Fleischhacker and M. Delazer, 2003). There is minor difference that women are more agreeable and conform authority on the other hand their male counterparts are aggressive and have expectations of success. Seeing the last 40 years trends one can assume that there is no significant

difference in job productivity of men and women. Evidence from a study of more than nearly 500,000 professional employees indicates significant differences, with women more likely to turn over than men (P.W.Hom, L.Roberson and A.D.Ellis, 2008). Women also have higher rates of absenteeism than men do. Following box proves employment status by sex.



Note: The term “wage and salaried workers” refers to persons who work and receive a wage or salary. Employers, own-account workers and contributing family workers are considered self-employed. Contributing family workers are those who work in a family enterprise.

Source: ILO calculations based on ILO, Trends Econometric Models, November 2015

Disability: To develop employable skills to gain employment in condition of decent work, a person with disability in India faces many challenges. Despite the person with disabilities, the representation of people with disabilities in the workplace did not increase significantly from 42 percent in 1993 to 38 percent in 2002. Whilst India has ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of People with disability (UNCRPD), persons with disability continue to face many difficulties in the labor market. Under the disability act 2016, the number of disability covered has been increased from 7 to 21. Additional benefits such as reservation in higher education (not less than 5%), government jobs (not less than 4 %), reservation in allocation of land, poverty alleviation schemes (5% allotment) etc. have been provided for persons with benchmark disabilities and those with high support needs.

The impact of disabilities on employment outcomes has been explored from variety of perspectives. On the one hand, a review of the evidence suggests workers with disabilities receive higher performance evaluations. However this same review found that despite their performance, individuals with disabilities tend to encounter lower performance expectations and less likely to be hired (L.R.Ren, R.L.Paetzold and A.Colella 2008).

Other Biographical Characteristics

Tenure: Tenure expresses as work experience, can contribute towards good employee’s productivity. The most recent studies show positive relationship between seniority and job productivity. Various studies also express this view that seniority is negatively related to absenteeism. The longer the person in the job, the less likely the chances of leaving a job. When age and tenure are

considered separately, tenure is more consistent and stable predictor of job satisfaction than age.

Religion: More often people of different religious faith conflict. The law establish strict guidelines and rules, to not discriminate on the ground of religion. Religious diversity has been characteristics of India for centuries. The official government holiday list has holidays on all major religious festivals. Faith can be an employment issue when religious beliefs prohibit or encourage certain behaviour.

Sexual Orientation and gender identity: Employers differ widely in their treatment of sexual orientation. In June 2009, the high court of Delhi, in a landmark judgement, decriminalised homosexual sex between consenting adults, overturning a 149 years old British colonial law (Section 377 of Indian Penal Code), which described sex between members of same gender as “Unnatural offence”. Many organisations have considered and adopted various organisational policies to protect employees and reduce discrimination on the ground of sexual orientation.

To respect gender identity, companies are increasingly modifying and altering their policies to govern how their organisation treats employees who change genders (transgender employees). In 2001, only eight out of fortune 500 had policies on gender identity. By 2006, that number crossed 124. IBM policy considers this fact and has such policies incorporated in their organisational policies and procedures.

Ability

Ability refers to capacity of a person to perform various tasks in a job. The ability of a person is developed with the mixture of Intellectual and physical factors. Let's discuss about these factors one by one.

Intellectual vs. Physical abilities

Intellectual abilities are those abilities requires by a person to perform various mental activities like reasoning, problem solving and thinking. Most organisation gives high preference to these abilities. Smart people attain higher level of education and thus earn more money generally.

Person who possess more intellectual abilities sometimes emerge as a leader. Intelligence test, SAT, and ACT and graduate admission tests in business schools (GMAT), law (LSAT/CLAT) and medicine (MCAT) etc are conducted to assess intelligence level of a candidate for hiring in an organisation or admission in an educational institutes.

Intelligence helps in performing well, but it doesn't make people happier or more satisfied with their jobs. There is about zero correlation between intelligence and job satisfactions. Research suggests that intelligent people are tending to have more interested jobs and thus they expect more. So it can be concluded that intelligent people are not loyal to an organisation and always look for better employment opportunities.

Though with changing business dynamics and increasing competition, intellectual abilities are important for many jobs, Physical abilities have been

and will remain valuable. Research on hundreds of jobs have identified nine basic physical abilities needed in the performance of physical tasks (E.A. Fleishman, 1998). These are given in following table. Individuals may differ on the basis of possessing each of these abilities. The high score on one physical ability does not assure high score on other physical ability. High performance level can be achieved when managers determine what all level of each of these abilities is required for a job.

Table 14.2: Activities and Factors

Strength Factors	
1. Dynamic Strength	Ability to exert muscular force repeatedly or continuously over time.
2. Trunk strength	Ability to exert muscular strength using the trunk muscles.
3. Static Strength	Ability to exert force against external objects.
4. Explosive Strength	Ability to expand a maximum of energy in one or a series of explosive acts.
Flexibility Factors	
5. Extent Flexibility	Ability to move the trunk and back muscles as far as possible.
6. Dynamic flexibility	Ability to make rapid, repeated and flexible movements.
Other factors	
7. Body coordination	Ability to coordinate simultaneous action of the different parts of the body.
8. Balance	Ability to maintain equilibrium despite forces pulling off balance.
9. Stamina	Ability to continue maximum efforts requiring prolonged effort over time.

14.7 WHAT IS DIVERSITY AT THE WORKPLACE?

People at the workplace are different with their perceptions, aspirations and drives and thus their responses to the stimuli of their seniors are different when it comes to directing their performance. Differences amongst them are in terms of age, gender, culture, academic background, experiences, lifestyle, nationality, social and political affiliation, talent and skills.

Dianah Worman (2005) categorised the diversity elements into three parts:

- Social Diversity: ethics, gender, age.
- Value Diversity: Psychological differences in personality and attitude.
- Information Diversity: education, functional tenure in the organisation.

These differences are so diverse and difficult to assesses and analyse, it is almost impossible to manage employees in a standard manner. Therefore, people with diverse characteristics should not be moulded in the organisation's culture but should rather be managed wisely so that their diversity can be exploited for the betterment to them and organisation as whole.

14.8 THE REASON BEHIND RISE OF DIVERSITY

Every organisation these days encounters diversity in workforce whether incorporated voluntarily or because of legal imposition. But why there is rise of diversity in an organisation? Its reason can be various and their impact can be studied in various dimensions. Few of them like globalisation, migration, political diversity, aging population etc are explained below.

Globalisation; Globalisation has removed many business barriers and allowed free flow of goods and services, person, thoughts and idea, and capital. Now there is ample opportunity for organisations to expand their business worldwide. This broad market has generated so many competitors with new type of customers and human resources. Thus Globalisation brings diversity in business with varied knowledge and skills, age, culture, abilities and sexual orientation.

Migration: Developed regions like North America and Western Europe experiencing low birth rate, declining ratios of workers to retirees. To maintain current level of economic activities, they need to import immigrants to work. The complete opposite conditions are in developing countries like India and south Asian region. Increasing rate of young people willing to work because of high birth rate and improved medical condition, cause difficult condition in an economy to absorb each individual in economic activities. So they need to emigrate to find job for themselves and support their families.

Women workers: the task of family members, their task and consumption pattern has been changed since last few decades with increasing number of working women. Professions that used to be dominated by male, now have been acquired and excelled by women. New rules and procedure modification has been introduced in company's policies after intrusion of government.

Aging population: improved health care facilities causing the increase in numbers of seniors staying alive and active at work. Thus the median working age of workforce is increasing. This explains why the work environment is being adapted to the old aged workers and why many processes and procedures have been modified and altered for workers in senior profile.

Political diversity: employees at organisation enter with different political ideas and eventually affiliations. This emerges as point and source of conflict among them especially when they are compelled to make decision regarding crucial national actions, such as strikes, public demonstrations and petitions.

14.9 DIVERSITY IS A THREAT OR AN OPPORTUNITY?

Diversity is a all pervasive reality that every organisation irrespective of its size or nature must consider and cater to. Diversity with organisation must be welcomed, acknowledged, appreciated and dealt with creativity, warmth and cross cultural recognition. This is because, no organisation has homogenous source of human capital, customers and suppliers.

Diversity affects or effects organisational performance and thus it is not just a moral, social or conscious issue rather it becomes imperative for an organisation to consider the same with the organisation and modify or alter the organisational

policies and principles as well as culture accordingly. Misunderstanding, not considering diversity may lead to destroyed relationship, lost customer, failure of policies and decline in profitability.

Diversity management means consideration, acknowledgement and appreciation of differences as a valuable. These practices enhance the organisational performance by eliminating and preventing discrimination and promoting inclusiveness. Non diversity at workplace may mean to exclusion of portion of the population with risk of social gaps, fundamentalism leading to civil disturbances such as riots in French sub urban areas. This may also lead to political confrontation like immigration law in Europe and USA.

Looking at the recent trends in business world, successful businesses are anticipating and capitalising on gradually rising proportion of minorities, female, immigrants and older workforce. Most of the diverse and innovative firms have now started capitalising on the disable talent.

The point to be noted here is that, when a question of diversity arises, people think of ethnicity and race first and then gender. But diversity is broader term that needs to be studied in various dimensions. Diversity can also be defined as otherness or difference in human qualities that are different from what we or majority possess-yet present in other individuals or group.

Activity 2:

Conduct a survey in the internet to identify the reasons and need of diversity at workforce.

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14.10 IMPLEMENTING DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Various differences among workforce has already been discuss, now let's look at how manager can and should manage those differences. Diversity management makes it possible to cater to diverse need and differences of people at work. This definition of diversity management highlights the facts that diversity management programme include and are meant for everyone. Diversity management practices will be successful if it works for everyone's business. Among various methods that an organisation must include and focus to manage diversity at work are given below:

Attracting diverse employees: One best method to enhance workforce diversity is to target recruiting message to specific people from specific demographic group. That is placing recruitment advertisement for specific demographic groups such as recruitment at university, college, with significant numbers of underrepresented minorities; and developing connection or partnership with associations like The India women scientist association.(IWSA) or tribe welfare

association of India. Advertisement that depicts group of diverse employees are seen as more attracted to women and racioethnic minorities. That is why most of the organisations include workforce diversity in their recruitment advertisements. Recruitment advertisement that does not depicts diversity send negative message about the diversity climate at an organisation.

Selection: selection is also that another important area where diversity efforts can be applied. The manager who hire must welcome and value fairness and objectivity in selection process and also focus on productivity capacity of new recruitment. Where managers use a well defined protocol for assessing applicant's talent and the organisation clearly prioritizes non-discrimination policies, qualification becomes far more important in determining who gets hired than demographic characteristics (M.R. Buckley, K.A. Jackson, M.C.Bolino, J.G Veres and H.S. Field, 2007).

Career Development: similarity in personality may affect Career advancement. If personality traits of a person matches with his other co-workers are preferred for promotion over those whose personality traits does not matches with other co workers (J. Schaubroeck and S.S.K. Lam, 2002). Where collectivistic culture is there in organisation, similarity to supervisor is more important for career development and predicting advancement, whereas in individualistic cultures, similarity to peers is more important. Deep level diversity factors are more important in shaping people's reactions to one another surface level characteristics.

Study on 6000 workers in a major retail organisation provide evidence that stores with less supportive diversity climate, white employees made significantly more sales than African Americans or Hispanics. But when diversity climate was positive in such stores African American made more sales than whites. Whites and Hispanic sold about the same amount (P.F McKay, D. R. Avery and M.A. Morris, 2008).

Retaining Employees: Data shows that individuals who are more demographically different from their co-workers are more likely to feel low commitment and turn over; Women are more predominantly turn over from male workers and men are more predominantly turn over from female workers. Non whites are predominantly leave or replace job from where there are whites and vice-versa (A.S. Tsui, T.D.Egan and C.A. O'Reilly 1992). This type of behaviour is more prominent among new hires. As people gets accustomed to each other at work, demographic at work are less consistently related to turnover. Indian study shows negative perceptions about their organisation among employees from minority groups. The study revealed that women employees and those belonging to reserved categories perceived the organisation they worked in to be less fair and less inclusive as compared to those who were from majority groups (S.K.Sia and G.Bhardwaj 2009).

14.11 CASE STUDY

Shell: Finance function driving the diversity agenda

Shell is a global group of energy and petrochemicals companies. Shell reports promoting diversity and inclusion to give all its employees the opportunity to

develop their skills and talents in line with corporate values and objectives. Shell General Business Principles identify one of the corporate aims as creating an inclusive work environment with equal opportunities. An interview with the vice president of finance showed that the finance function, with the assistance of a global steering committee, focuses closely on diversity management. Global finance leaders of the company have a strong commitment to diversity and they actively promote diversity in the finance functions. This senior leadership support has helped inculcate a positive cultural shift in the finance function towards recognising the value of diversity. The diversity leaders in the finance function believe that ‘winning hearts and minds’ is not enough alone; structures, targets and processes are needed to produce significant improvements in outcomes and to initiate a culture change. Currently, the function has a global emphasis on gender diversity. In addition, the need to go beyond gender is recognised and there is a significant effort to increase ethnic diversity, with a particular attention to Asian talent, given Shell’s customer base and capital investment.

Source: United States, Congress, Özbilgin, Mustafa, et al. “The Business Case of Diversity Management.” The Business Case of Diversity Management, 2014.

14.12 SUMMARY

This unit summarises diversity from many perspectives. The three basic variables of diversity are Biographical characteristics, ability and disability. Let’s recapitulate what we have learnt and summarise its importance for managers trying to manage organisational diversity.

- Biographical characteristics are conspicuous and can be readily available. But that does not mean that managerial decision must be derived out of it. Many research and studies demonstrated that biographical characteristics do not necessarily influence job performances. We also need to be aware of implicit biases we or other managers may have.
- Wise and effective selection procedure may ensure the fit between employees and job requirements. A thorough and deep job analysis will provide information about job currently being done and abilities that an individual must possess to perform the job effectively. Job application can be tested, evaluated, interviewed and analysed on the basis of skills and abilities required for the job and what all skills and abilities individual possess. A best match may prove best candidate to be hired.
- Promotion and transfer decision of an organisation must be taken keeping in mind the diversity of an organisation, culture sustaining in business and organisational policies and procedures. Care should be taken for newly hired employees to assess their abilities, developing desired behaviour required by an organisation.
- To accommodate employee with disabilities, managers should develop and alter mechanism by fine tuning the job so that it can match better with abilities of disabled individual. Change in Equipments, infrastructure, reorganising task within a group can help in accommodating diversity and differences of employees with disability.

- Diversity management must be continuous and crosses all level of the organisation. Recruitment, hiring, retention, group management and development practices can all be designed so that diversity can be flourished and generate advantage to an organisation.
- Policies to improve the climate of diversity can be effective, so long as they are designed to include and accommodate all differences of employees. Comprehensive programmes that address the diversity climate at multiple levels are more effective than one shot diversity training session.

14.13 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) What are the key biographical characteristics and how are they relevant to organisational behaviour?
- 2) Differentiate between intellectual and physical Ability.
- 3) How do organisations manage diversity effectively?
- 4) Define levels of diversity within organisation.

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UNIT 15 POSITIVE APPROACHES TO WORK BEHAVIOUR

Objectives

After completion of the unit, you should be able to understand:

- the aspects of work behaviour and the concepts of optimism, happiness and well-being.
- the areas of application of the above concepts in the workplace.
- the concept of spiritual intelligence and its importance at workplace.
- the role of emotional intelligence in organisations.

Structure

- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Optimism in Workplace
- 15.3 Happiness Objective or Subjective
- 15.4 Spiritual Intelligence (SQ) at Workplace
- 15.5 Concept of SQ
- 15.6 Organizational Spirituality
- 15.7 Contribution of Spiritual Intelligence to Effective Managerial Leadership
- 15.8 Emotional Intelligence
- 15.9 Models of Emotional Intelligence
- 15.10 Applications of Emotional Intelligence
- 15.11 Summary
- 15.12 Self-Assessment Questions
- 15.13 Further Readings/ References

15.1 INTRODUCTION

There are different positive approaches to work behaviour such as spiritual intelligence and emotional intelligence. These approaches help to maintain optimism.

Optimism is considered as a key component of the modern positive psychology. The positive influence of optimism on psychological and physical health, motivation and achievement in athletic, academic, occupational and political success have been well documented.

Optimism also has certain dysfunctions, drawbacks and costs. For example, an individual who tends to be optimistic about his future health can neglect needed

physical and nutritional maintenance or an optimistic manager may neglect making the needed action plans to attain organizational goals. So optimism has been largely neglected as an important concept and its influence on employee performance was underrated in Organisational behavioural studies.

Optimism is defined as ‘power of positive thinking’ in general. Psychologists define optimism ‘cognitive characteristic in terms of generalized positive outcome expectancy or/ and a positive causal attribution.’ It is also used in relation to other positive concepts such as hope and Emotional Intelligence (EI).

Dimensions of Optimism:

Optimism as human nature:

Early psychologists and philosophers considered optimism as a negative aspect and they claimed optimism as an illusion. Only in 1960’s to 1970’s did psychologists realised that many people had a positive bias to themselves than the actual reality. This positive bias was further considered by neuro-psychologists, evolutionary psychologists and anthropologists as a basic part of human nature.

Optimism as an individual difference:

Modern psychology treats optimism as an individual difference as people have varying degrees of optimism. Treating optimism as an individual difference focuses on cognitively determined expectations and casual attributions. Seligman has identified causal attributions that optimists and pessimists tend to use to interpret bad events. He proposed that pessimists make internal, stable and global attributions (internal - their own faults, stable - will last long time, global -will undermine everything they do) while optimists make external, unstable and specific attributions (external – not their fault, unstable – temporary setback and specific- problem only in this situation)

Some unresolved optimism issues:

- 1) **Little vs. big optimism:** Optimism may vary in level and degree in individuals.
- 2) **Optimism vs. pessimism:** Though optimism and pessimism are considered to be mutually exclusive, they may not be.
- 3) **Learning and sustainable optimism:** Although Optimism is sometimes considered as a stable personality trait, research shows that optimism can be learned and applied.

15.2 OPTIMISM IN WORKPLACE

Optimism is both motivated and motivating, has the desirable characteristics of achievement, health and perseverance, makes external, unstable and specific attributions of personal bad events and is linked with positive outcomes such as occupational success, so optimism is a very positive force in workplace. Though optimism has been proven as a positive power at workplace, only realistic optimism leads to effective leadership. It should not be misinterpreted with false optimism.

Some jobs and careers where optimism is valuable are advertising, social services, health, customer service, product design, public relations and sales. There are also jobs in which are not suited for highly optimistic people and a level of mild pessimism would be beneficial. Some of such jobs can be accounting, financial control, technical jobs related to safety etc.

Application Example:**Half- Full or Half Empty**

Although not extensively the research on optimism in the work place has found to be on the rise in organizational behaviour literature. Some people view their life and day to day events happening in their life (glass) as “half- full” (optimists) while some view the same as “half- Empty”(pessimists). Here are some examples.

- 1) Consider two executives who failed to get their promotion because of negative evaluations from their boss.
 - A) The half empty executive reacted to the snub in a rage. He had fantasies of killing his boss, complain to anyone who would listen to his unfair treatment and went on a drinking binge. He felt like his life was over. He avoided his boss and looked down when passing him in the hall. In an interview however he admitted that though he was angry and disappointed, he still felt that he was not capable enough to be promoted and he was not in a position to change.
 - B) The half full executive who did not get his promotion was also shocked and upset. But he reasoned to himself, instead of going to a rage. In an interview he admitted that he always disagreed to his boss and both were different people altogether. So he was not very surprised for not being rated well. Instead of grumbling, he discussed the situation with his wife to determine what must have gone wrong and how he could correct it. He realised that maybe he was not giving his best at work and decided to discuss it further with his boss. Next time in the meeting with the boss he had a proper discussion where boss admitted that perhaps he was wrong and he admitted that he was not giving his fullest at work.
- 2) Another half full case is Anne Busquet of American express. She was relieved of her duties as head of optima card division when it was discovered that some of her employees had hidden millions of dollars of bad debt. Although not involved, she was held accountable and was shattered by the setback. However, instead of quitting, she was still confident in her abilities and took a lower position trying to save the company’s failing merchandising service division. She made self-examination of what went wrong in the optima card division and concluded that maybe she was too strict and critical of her people. She reasoned that this style may have led her people to fear her to a point where they hid the losses. She resolved to soften her style and become more open, patient, and a better listener. Using this approach to manage the troubled merchandise service division, she saw it reach profitability within two years.

- 3) Perhaps the greatest “half- full” case is Arthur Blank, the founder of Home Depot. In 1978, after personality clashes with his boss at the hardware chain Handy Dan’s he was fired. Instead of getting angry, he got even. He believed in his abilities and vision for this type of retailing. He did not give up after the setback at Handy Dan’s. When an investor approached him, he jumped at the chance to put his talents to work and founded Home Depot. The rest is history.

The half full optimists interpret bad events in terms of Seligman’s explanatory style and as the preceding three examples indicate, this can result in future positive outcomes. Whereas the half empty pessimists tend to give up and go into downward spiral after failures or problems. The half- full’s view the setbacks as lessons to be learned for future success.

Seligman’s Met Life Studies:

For studies of optimism in the workplace, Seligman again leads the way with his pioneering work at Metropolitan Life Insurance. After conferring with the president of this huge company, he was able to test the obvious hypothesis that optimism and its attendant motivation and perseverance were the keys to sales success. A shortened version of his theory based attributional style questionnaire (ASQ) was administered to two hundred experienced Met Life Agents. This open ended version of ASQ was designed to determine the habitual explanatory style by asking the respondents to interpret six good and six bad vignettes in terms of personalization, permanence and pervasiveness. Importantly, this test has been found to be very difficult to fake optimism, the right answers vary from test to test, and it does contain lie scales to identify those not telling the truth.

Results were that agents who scored in the most optimistic half of the ASQ had sold thirty seven percent more insurance on average in their first two years than agents who scored in the pessimistic half. Agents who scored in top ten percent scored eighty eight percent more than most pessimistic ten percent.

Despite the impressive findings from the initial study, Seligman was not sure whether optimism caused high performance or optimists became high performers. He then conducted a pilot study on one hundred and four new hires who have taken both standard insurance industry test and ASQ. Interestingly he found the new insurance agents to be more optimistic than the other group (e.g. world class swimmers, baseball stars, community traders). Optimistic scorers were much less likely to quit and did as well as the industry test in predicting performance.

He next launched a fully blown study involving fifteen thousand applicants to Met Life taking both industry test and ASQ. One thousand were hired and importantly one hundred and twenty nine more (called Special Force) that had scored in the top half of those taking ASQ but had failed the industry test were also hired. In the first year the optimists (those who scored in the top half of ASQ) outsold the pessimists by only eight percent, but in the second year by thirty one percent. The Special Force outsold the hired pessimists in the regular force by twenty-one percent in the first year and fifty seven percent in the second. They sold about the same as optimists in the regular force. Met life, on

the basis of Seligman's studies, then adopted ASQ as an important part of their selection process of new agents.

Happiness and Well-being:

Happiness has been a topic of interest for many centuries, starting with Ancient Greek philosophy, post-Enlightenment Western-European moral philosophy (especially Utilitarianism) to current quality-of-life and well-being research in social, political and economic sciences. Nowadays, happiness as a concept seems to be readily embraced by the majority of people and appears to be more valued than the pursuit of money, moral goodness or going to heaven. Not surprisingly, during the past thirty years and especially since the creation of positive psychology, psychology too has turned its attention towards the study of happiness and well-being.

There are several reasons why the field of well-being is flourishing at the moment:

- First of all, Western countries have achieved a sufficient level of affluence, so that survival is no longer a central factor in people's lives. Quality of life is becoming more important than matters of economic prosperity.
- Personal happiness is becoming more and more important because of growing trends towards individualism.
- Finally, a number of valid and reliable measures have been developed, which have allowed the study of well-being to establish itself as a serious and recognised discipline.

Benefits of happiness and well-being:

Research evidence demonstrates that there are benefits of happiness and well-being like positive affect and well-being lead to sociability, better health, success, self-regulation and helping behaviour.

Well-being enhances creativity and divergent thinking. It appears that happiness, similarly to positive affect, stimulates playing with new ideas. New research has also shown that happy people persist longer at a task that is not very enjoyable in itself, are better at multi-tasking and are more systematic and attentive. Well-being is even associated with longevity.

15.3 HAPPINESS OBJECTIVE OR SUBJECTIVE

There is a big debate in psychology about whether happiness can and should be measured objectively or subjectively. Some argue that it cannot possibly be measured objectively because none of the obvious behaviours can be linked to happiness in a reliable manner. Even an outgoing and friendly appearance, which is so frequently observed among happy people, can be put on as a mask by those who are unhappy. Others, however, including Nobel Prize winner Daniel Kahneman, believe in the objective assessment of happiness, which could be gathered from averaged out multiple assessments of people's moods over a period of time. This way, a happiness assessment would not need to be tied to memory and retrospective accounts. Nevertheless, the subjective paradigm appears to prevail at the moment.

Generally the words ‘happiness’ and ‘well-being’ interchangeably because the notion of subjective well-being (SWB) is used in research literature as a substitute for the term ‘happiness’. It encompasses how people evaluate their own lives in terms of cognitive and affective explanations, and can be represented in the following way:

$$\text{SWB} = \text{SATISFACTION WITH LIFE} + \text{AFFECT}$$

The first, cognitive part of subjective well-being is expressed by life satisfaction. Life satisfaction represents one’s assessment of one’s own life. One is satisfied when there is little or no discrepancy between the present and what is thought to be an ideal or deserved situation. On the other hand, dissatisfaction is a result of a substantial discrepancy between present conditions and the ideal standard. Dissatisfaction can also be a result of comparing oneself with others.

Affect represents the emotional side of SWB. The notion of affect comprises both positive and negative moods and emotions that are associated with our everyday experiences.

Even though common sense would suggest that one should feel most happy if one experiences the maximum amount of intense positive affect and not very frequent negative affect, researchers demonstrate that this is not the case. They show that, whilst it is very important to experience positive affect often, the intense positive affect is not necessary for well-being. It appears that intense positive emotions usually come at a price, as they are often followed by periods of low affect. Also they can negatively affect the evaluation of subsequent (usually less intense) positive experiences.

Nurturing Subjective well-being:

A number of theories say that it is impossible to permanently change someone’s level of happiness. Zero-sum Theory suggests that happiness is cyclical and that happy and unhappy periods follow each other. Any attempt to increase happiness will soon be nullified by a consequent unhappy period. Another theory claims that happiness is a fixed characteristic and is, therefore, not open to change, although happiness is not quite as stable during adolescence and early adulthood and can be affected by major life changes. Therefore, it is more likely that happiness ‘tends to get’ fixed, rather than being fixed from the very beginning.

Adaptation theory predicts that although happiness reacts at negative and positive life events, it returns to its baseline shortly afterwards. Lottery winners soon revert to their normal level of well-being, and paraplegics and quadriplegics also seem to adjust to their conditions and nearly come back to their previous level of well-being. It has been discovered that only life events which occurred during the past two or three months influence well-being. However, despite the evidence that people get adjusted to both lottery winning and spinal injuries, there are certain conditions (such as widowhood, loneliness and injustice) to which people never adjust completely.

15.4 SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE (SQ) AT WORK PLACE

In early 20th century IQ (rational intelligence) the big idea. Mid 1990s, Daniel Goleman popularized research from neuroscientists and psychologists which demonstrated existence of EQ (emotional intelligence). EQ (feeling) is a basic requirement for use of IQ (thinking). Now further research shows there is a 3rd Q - Spiritual intelligence or SQ. This is the intelligence with which we address and solve problems of meaning and value, the intelligence with which we place our actions and lives in a wider, richer, meaning-giving context. SQ is the necessary foundation for both IQ and EQ; it is our ultimate intelligence. It allows us to be creative, change the rules, alter situations; to dream, aspire, and sees the uses and limits of both understanding and compassion. EQ allows us to judge a situation and behave appropriately within it; SQ allows us to ask if we want to be in it at all, or would I rather change it, create a new one? IQ, EQ and SQ correspond to three distinct neural arrangements in the brain. IQ and EQ models have had 2 layers: Outer, rational, conscious personality, and the Inner, unconscious one. Now this third layer (SQ), a central core.

Danah Zohar and Ian Marshall have discussed in their book "SQ Spiritual Intelligence, The Ultimate Intelligence" discussed three different types of thinking – corresponding to the three types of Intelligence: IQ, EQ and SQ.

- **Serial Thinking:** is done across neural tracts. Measured by IQ, this is about logical and rational thought processes
- **Associative Thinking** is done across neural networks. It underlies EQ. It helps with mental associations, or connections. It creates patterns that we can recognize like faces, odours; learn skills like playing an instrument or driving a car.
- **Unitive Thinking** is creative, intuitive and insightful and comes from much deeper within, from our personal 'centre' – our SQ. While we learn and understand with IQ and EQ, it is SQ that gives us the ability to create and invent.

Spirituality refers to the individual search and experiential elements of the sacred, deep meaning, unity, connectedness, transcendence, and the highest human potential. In contrast, spiritual intelligence integrates these subjective experiential themes of spirituality associated with meaning, sacred experiences, interconnectedness, and transcendence, and applies them to the tasks involved in living in order to enhance functioning, adaptation, and well-being to produce products that are valuable within a cultural context or community. Hence, spiritual intelligence can be differentiated from spirituality in general, spiritual experience, or spiritual belief (e.g., a belief in God).

Definitions

- 1) Vaughan (2002) defines spiritual intelligence as a capacity for a deep understanding of existential questions and insight into multiple levels of consciousness.

- 2) Wolman (2001) defines spiritual intelligence as the human capacity to ask ultimate questions about the meaning of life, and to simultaneously experience the seamless connection between each of us and the world in which we live. (p. 83).

15.5 CONCEPT OF SQ

Spiritual intelligence is defined as the ability to apply, manifest, and embody spiritual resources, values, and qualities to enhance daily functioning and wellbeing. Despite the overlap between religion and spirituality, there is general agreement on the distinction between them. Religion is focused on rituals and beliefs with regards to the sacred within institutional organizations, and spirituality refers to individual experiential elements of meaning and transcendence.

Three Modes of Brain Processing

Neurological studies have established that the brain has three distinct processing modes, called serial, parallel and synchronous. Serial processing is associated with IQ functions in the left brain. Parallel processing is associated with EQ functions in the right brain. And synchronous processing is associated with SQ functions in the whole brain.

Neural Basis for Spiritual Intelligence

40Hz oscillations propagate across the whole brain synchronously, and are associated with conscious attention and the state of presence. By linking part-brain functions from both hemispheres into the integrated field of the whole brain, 40Hz synchronous oscillations connect mind, self and world into a meaningful whole. Consequently 40Hz oscillations constitute the neural basis for SQ.

SQ Brain Circuitry

Recent findings in neuroscience confirm that spiritual intelligence is hard-wired in the human brain. But SQ brain circuitry remains largely dormant and undeveloped unless the SQ neural network is actually used. Random moments of spiritual intelligence occur spontaneously, but not very often. Therefore it's important to know how to activate SQ intentionally, thus converting spiritual intelligence from a random fleeting experience, into your most valuable personal resource.

Neuroscience confirms that spiritual intelligence is hard-wired in the human brain.

Qualities of Spiritual Intelligence

The qualities of spiritual intelligence are the native qualities of consciousness itself, which are experienced at the subject-pole of attention in moments of presence in the form of wisdom, compassion, integrity, joy, love, creativity, and peace. By identifying with consciousness itself, instead of identifying with states of body and mind, we activate spiritual intelligence and thus experience its qualities. This shift in identification corresponds to the shift from ego to soul. Spiritual intelligence is therefore the intelligence of the soul.

15.6 ORGANIZATIONAL SPIRITUALITY

In a research correlating workplace spirituality and performance, Jurkiewicz and Giacalone (2004) suggest a positive link moderated through greater employee motivation, commitment, and adaptability and flexibility towards organizational change. They propose the following values framework for performance enhancing workplace spirituality: benevolence, generativity, humanism, integrity, justice, mutuality, receptivity, respect, responsibility, and trust.

Spirituality in the workplace can bind employees to the company and enhance job performance. Furthermore, organizations that offer spiritually-oriented goals provide opportunities to experience higher sense of service and greater personal growth. These in turn lead to better teamwork, organizational commitment, and, ultimately, performance. Spirituality at work can be understood as the recognition that employees have an inner life that nourishes and is nourished by meaningful work that takes place in the context of community. Thus, spirituality at work addresses three aspects pertaining to inner life, meaningful work, and community.

The spirituality performance connection is enabled by leaders who possess a strong spirit-friendly orientation. Indeed, the leaders in the better performing units showed higher spirituality scores than the leaders in the lower performing units.

Practical application

Spiritual intelligence is something everyone has but few learn to develop. Rational intelligence manages facts and information, using logic and analysis to make decisions. Emotional intelligence is necessary to understand and control one's emotions and feelings, while being sensitive to the feelings of others.

Spiritual intelligence, on the other hand, is necessary:

- to find and use the deepest inner resources from which comes the capacity to care and the power to tolerate and adapt
- to develop a clear and stable sense of identity as an individual in the context of shifting workplace relationships
- to be able to discern the real meaning of events and circumstances, and be able to make work meaningful
- to identify and align personal values with a clear sense of purpose
- to live those values without compromise and thereby demonstrate integrity by example
- to understand where and how each of the above is sabotaged by the ego, which means being able to understand and influence true cause.

15.7 CONTRIBUTION OF SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE TO EFFECTIVE MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP

The spiritual qualities and themes such as confidence in the meaning and purpose of life, a sense of mission in life, and a vision for the betterment of the world, tie into the inspirational elements of leaders and to those models of leadership that highlight the leader's role in defining and mobilizing meaning. Researchers have explored the spiritual dimensions of leadership by proposing a transcendental leadership theory that hierarchically integrates and extends the transactional and transformational theories of leadership. Transcendental leadership, in their view, comprises three dimensions of spirituality: consciousness, moral character, and faith. As leaders grow in their spiritual development along these dimensions, they develop greater awareness and intuition along the consciousness dimension, are guided by an internalized set of universal values along the moral dimensions, and are more inner-directed along the faith dimension. These developments lead to internal locus of control and greater leadership effectiveness.

Effective leaders manifest greater self-awareness and self-knowledge which are the components of spiritual intelligence. Another important aspect of spiritual intelligence, namely, exhibiting inner-directedness in the form of creativity, is important for effective leadership. There is an increasing interest in the integration of spirituality into business leadership in order to articulate and mobilize meaning, and to provide inspirational motivation to employees. Studies suggest that several SQ abilities relating to meaning, intuition, self-knowledge and self-awareness, and egolessness and humility may contribute to effective business leadership.

Leaders lead by articulating a vision and mobilizing meaning. The dissemination of meaning happens through symbolic management (metaphors, stories, etc.) that communicates a set of beliefs and values. This symbolic management is done through the evocation of emotion. These leadership paradigms go beyond what is termed transactional leadership that involves managing and manipulating rewards.

Spiritual leadership theory (SLT) was developed within an intrinsic motivation model that incorporates vision, hope/faith, and altruistic love. SLT contains three main qualities of leadership: (a) Vision defines the destination and journey reflecting high ideals and standards for excellence; (b) Altruistic Love provides for a sense of wholeness, harmony, and well-being produced through care, concern, and appreciation for self and others; and (c) Hope/Faith fostering endurance, perseverance, do what it takes attitude, reaching for stretch goals with an optimistic expectation of victory and excellence. A sense of meaning and calling in one's work and organizational membership in turn supports organizational commitment, effort, and productivity, leading to higher organizational effectiveness.

Contribution of Spiritual Intelligence to Effective Employee Engagement:

Spiritual intelligence integrates these subjective experiential themes of spirituality associated with meaning, sacred experiences, interconnectedness, and transcendence, and applies them to the tasks involved in living in order to

enhance functioning, adaptation, and well-being to produce products that are valuable within a cultural context or community.

As spiritual intelligence includes the ability to utilize trans-rational modes of knowing such as intuition, CEOs who can use multiple levels of consciousness that transcend linear and logical thinking may indeed make better decisions and solve problems more holistically and effectively. Incorporating spirituality at work provides organizational members a sense of community and connectedness; thus increases their attachment, loyalty and belonging to the organization. Spirituality provides employees a sense of community and connectedness; increasing their attachment, loyalty and belonging to the organization.

Providing employees a sense of community and connectedness is critical in today's workplaces and corporations. Feeling part of a community and sharing a common purpose are two dimensions that have been frequently associated with workplace spirituality. A sense of connection and interconnectedness to something larger than oneself has also been considered an important part of spirit at work. The consequences of spiritual experiences at work are discussed in the literature including higher levels of employee attachment, loyalty and belonging. Consequences of spiritual relationships include intimacy, wholeness, authenticity, altruism, and integrity.

Perspectives of Spiritual Intelligence

Five different perspectives are derived from the literature on how Spiritual Intelligence influences Organization Behavior, Leadership Behavior, Employee Well Being and Culture and support organization performance, based on the extant literature:

- a) Spiritual Intelligence enhances employee's Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence.
- b) Spiritual Intelligence improves the employee's quality of life and well-being.
- c) Employee with higher Spiritual Intelligence and Emotional Intelligence exhibit a sense of purpose and meaning for their life and hence work.
- d) Spiritual Intelligence transforms employees to feel a sense of interconnectedness and socially responsible.
- e) Spiritual Intelligences fosters evolved and inclusive behavior among employees and leaders.

7) Practical Steps Towards A Better SQ

Zohar and Marshall recommend **7 practical steps towards a better SQ**

- 1) Become aware of where I am now
- 2) Feel strongly what I want to change
- 3) Reflect on what my own centre is and on my deepest motivations
- 4) Discover and dissolve obstacles

- 5) Explore many possibilities to proceed forward
- 6) Commit myself to a path
- 7) Remain aware that there are many paths

6) Paths Towards Greater Spiritual Intelligence

- 1) Conventional: the path of duty
- 2) Social: the path of nurturing
- 3) Investigate: path of
- 4) Artistic: path of personal transformation
- 5) Realistic: path of brotherhood
- 6) Enterprising: path of servant leadership

15.8 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Over the last two decades organizations have seen a fundamental shift in management style. Roles have become more customer oriented and knowledge based with the need to work as a team. This has resulted in individuals having more overall autonomy, even at fairly low levels within organizations.

This has created organizational cultures that are less autocratic with only a few levels of management. The very nature of such organizations has allowed those with highly developed social skills to be as successful as those who excel academically. The historical timeline of 'social or emotional' shows this is not a new concept, but one that over time has gained general agreement as a key element of workplace success.

Studies are confirming the importance of being present to our emotions at work. The result has a greater long-term impact on the bottom line than quality improvement programs or monetary incentives. In fact, there is now concrete evidence demonstrating that interpersonal skills are a greater predictor of success over technical and intellectual competencies.

Concept of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is the summative of abilities, competencies and skills that signify a collection of knowledge in order to cope with life effectively. Therefore, it is closely related to the personal and professional growth of the individuals who have to take decisions under stressful and difficult situations. EI is the ability to recognize and understand your emotions and your skill at using this awareness to manage yourself and your relationship with others.

Developed as a psychological theory, it was defined by Peter Salovey and John Mayer as *“the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.”*

The construct of emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the individual differences in the perception, processing, regulation, and utilization of emotional information.

As these differences have been shown to have a significant impact on important life outcomes (e.g., mental and physical health, work performance and social relationships).

15.9 MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

There are three main emotional intelligence models which include:

- 1) Emotional intelligence Model based on Trait.
 - 2) Emotional Models based on Ability.
 - 3) Emotional intelligence from mixed models.
- 1) **The Trait Emotional Intelligence model:** Trait emotional intelligence or Trait emotional self-efficacy is described as “a constellation or behaviour dispositions and self-perceptions regarding a person’s ability to recognize, process and utilize emotional-laden information” where the trait emotional intelligence should be measured within the framework of an individual’s personality.

The trait emotional intelligence is measured by numerous tools of self-report and include the EQ, the Six seconds emotional intelligence assessment, the Swinburne University emotional intelligence test (SUEIT) and the Schutte self-report emotional intelligence test (SSEIT).

- 2) **Emotional intelligence model based on ability:** This model maintains emotions as vital information sources that enable a person to make good use of the social environment. According to the model, an individual’s ability to process emotional information varies from one person to another and certain adaptive behaviours manifest themselves in this ability. The model thus goes further to propose four ability types that include:
 - o Perceiving of emotions
 - o Using of emotion
 - o Understanding emotions and
 - o Initiating the emotions

After developing this model, it signalled the development of a measurement instrument that was named after its advocates, Mayer-Salovey- Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) which is based on various “emotion-based problem solving items”. The ability of a person is measured on the four branches of emotional intelligence which then generates a score for each branch and eventually the total score.

- 3) **Mixed models of emotional intelligence:** Included in the mixed emotional intelligence model are Golemans’s Emotional Competencies and Bar-On’s emotional-social intelligence model.

Several studies have shown that Emotional intelligence has considerable impact on the performance at work, helps to steer the social intricacies of the workplace, lead and motivate others, and outshine in career. It also affects physical health by managing the stress levels, which if left uncontrolled can lead to serious

health problems. It is well established in numerous psychological reports that major step to improving emotional intelligence is to learn how to relieve stress which in turn will also improve your mental health. By understanding ones emotions and how to control them, person is able to express how to feel and understand others feeling. This permits communicating more successfully and developing stronger relationships, both at work and in personal life.

Three of these models are discussed in detail below:

- **Bar-On's model:** Reuven Bar-On (1988) has retained emotional intelligence in the framework of personality theory, specifically a model of well-being. Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence relates to the potential for performance and success, instead of performance or success itself, and is considered process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented. It focuses on a range of emotional and social abilities, including the ability to be aware of, understand, and express oneself, the ability to be aware of, understand, and relate to others, the ability to deal with strong emotions, and the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of a social or personal nature.

Table 15.1: Bar-On's Model of Emotional Intelligence

Components	Sub-Components
Intrapersonal	Self-Regard Emotional Self-Awareness Assertiveness Independence Self-Actualization
Interpersonal	Empathy Social Responsibility Interpersonal Relationship
Adaptability	Reality Testing Flexibility problem Solving
Stress Management	Stress Tolerance Impulse Control
General Mood Components	Optimism Happiness

In his model, Bar-On summaries have five components of emotional intelligence that include intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general mood. Bar-On postulates that emotional intelligence develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy.

- **Mayer and Salovey's (1997) Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence**

Pure theory of Salovey and Mayer of emotional intelligence proposes that emotional intelligence is comprised of two areas: experiential (ability to perceive, respond, and manipulate emotional information without necessarily understanding it) and strategic (ability to understand and manage emotions without necessarily perceiving feelings well or fully experiencing them).

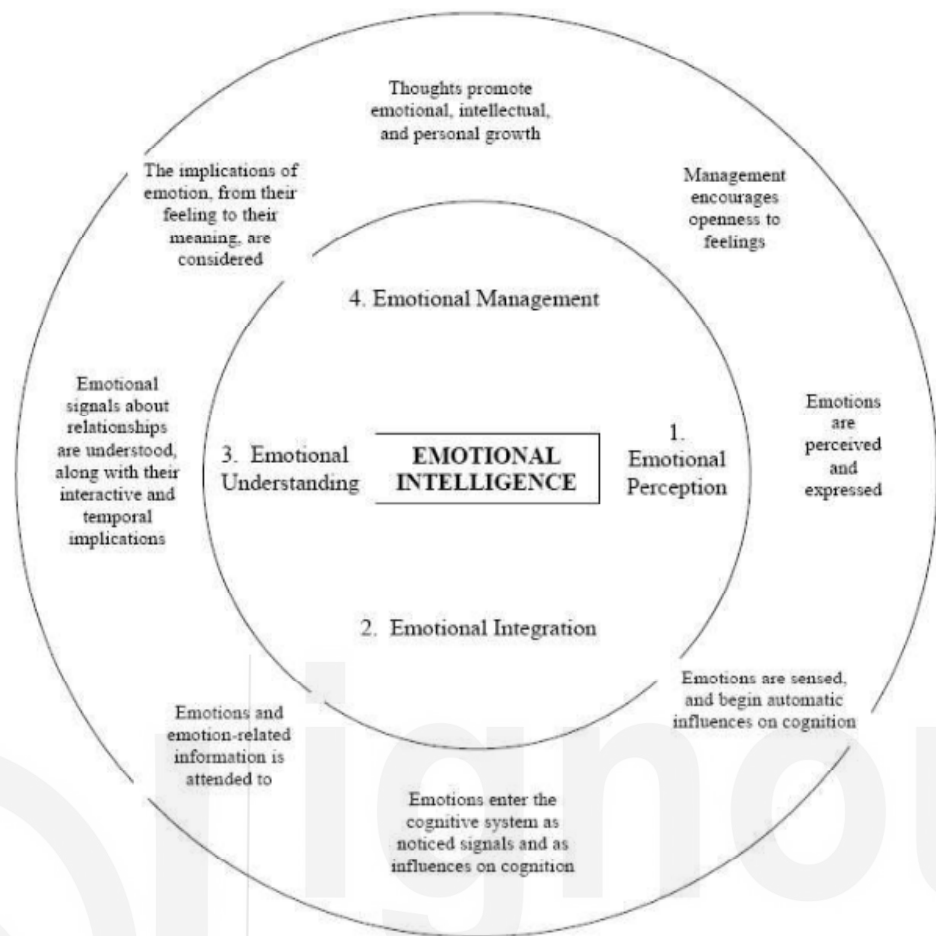


Fig. 15.1: Mayer and Salovey's (1997) Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence

- **Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence:** Daniel Goleman observes emotional intelligence as a mixed intelligence involving cognitive ability and personality aspects. He has promoted the notion of emotional intelligence and formulated it in terms of a theory of job and work performance. According to Goleman, five primary domains characterize emotional intelligence:
 - 1) Self-awareness is recognizing your strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats and emotions. It is knowing your own feelings, assessing capabilities and understanding weaknesses.
 - 2) Self-regulation is managing your strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats and emotions. It is the ability to control out bursts, disruptive impulses and moods. It also encourages "think before acting" attitude.
 - 3) Internal motivation focuses on meeting goals, taking initiatives, maintaining excellence and optimism. It is the passion to work for internal reasons such as personal joy, curiosity or mental satisfaction.
 - 4) Empathy is the ability to understand and respond to others people's feelings and emotions. It requires reading the feelings and understanding the needs of others.
 - 5) Social skill is the ability to negotiate the needs and feelings of others to that of yours. It is the proficiency in managing relationships and building networks, and an ability to find common ground.

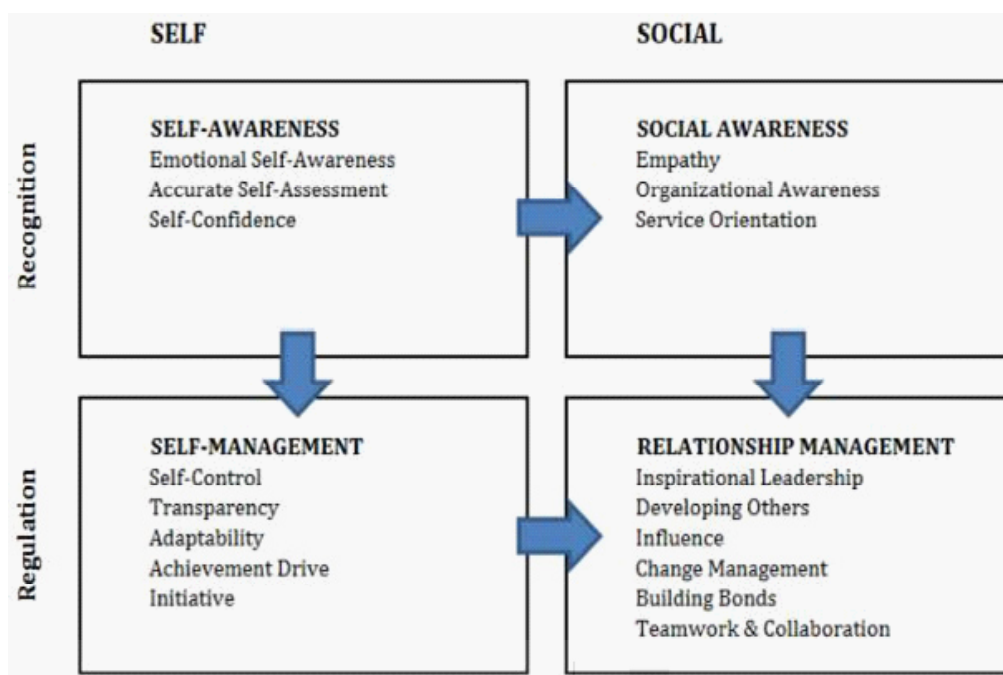


Exhibit 15.1: Self and Social

15.10 APPLICATIONS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional Intelligence (EI) can be a valuable tool a administrator and managers in government or any company. Since research on Emotional Intelligence began, results overwhelmingly show that people high in various combinations of emotional competencies outperform people who are weak in those areas. When emotional competencies are used in leader selection, for example, performance and retention rates increase significantly. The research shows that the most successful people, those who consistently outperform their peers, exhibit more of the skills and traits known as Emotional Intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership: High performing leaders tend to have higher Emotional Intelligence than their peers. For Ex: We have many example of a more successful non-technical CEO in a technical company compared to a technical CEO. The reason is that EI becomes more decisive factors rather than IQ in many areas of leadership. Goleman believed that leaders with high in emotional intelligence are the key of organisational success. Goleman stated that, as leaders, they must have the ability to know employees feelings especially in the workplace environment, to interfere when trouble occur among the employees, able to control their own feeling, and able to realize the political and social interventions within an organisations. Effective leadership basically correlated with the ability of the leaders to establish confident among employees, respect and intelligently build relationship with the employees.

Emotional Intelligence and Team Building:

Emotional Intelligence has a significant impact on team member relationships and their effectiveness in reaching a team's goals. Understanding our own EI strengths and weaknesses, as well as those of other team members, provides a means for improving the interpersonal dynamics of teamwork.

EI training can help team members learn how:

- individual EI fits with the EI of other team members, managers, clients, etc.
- work assignments can be made and accomplished more effectively
- to improve communication
- to minimize the negative aspects of conflict
- to present information most effectively
- to design more effective problem solving groups
- to assist team members in maximizing their individual and collective strengths

Emotional Intelligence and Conflict:

Emotional Intelligence significantly influences how we go about solving interpersonal problems. Thus, conflict in organizations often stems from EI differences. Understanding how to use our EI more effectively helps us solve interpersonal problems more effectively and efficiently and increases the overall effectiveness of work teams. When people understand the basics of how they are different from each other and their strengths and weaknesses, they can take steps to reduce conflict and become more accepting. EI training can help to manage conflict which might include:

- Overcoming EI Differences
- Problem solving
- Emotional Dynamics
- Working Together

15.11 SUMMARY

Today's workplace is a battle zone with constant fights for market share, visibility, top-of-mind, revenues, profitability and talent. As in any war, in the office too, it is the people who invariably get impacted. Pressure to perform amidst workplace and environment challenges tells on employee morale, engagement and wellness. And it takes a toll: Stress, and dissatisfaction. Today's crisis is a spiritual one- in the world at large and in the workplace as well. Helping people identify themselves and enhance their own SQ is a good way to improve engagement, interpersonal connections and the general ease of working together, while keeping stress down.

Emotional intelligence influences organizational effectiveness in a number of areas such as to identify and recruit top talent and retaining them, identify potential leaders in its ranks and prepare them to move up, make better use of the special talents available in a diverse workforce, development of talent, helping people to be motivated, committed, creative, innovative and to cope with massive, rapid change, teamwork, employee commitment, morale, and

health, innovation, productivity, efficiency, sales etc. Emotional intelligence is the ability to identify and understand emotions and their impact on behaviour and attitudes. Those who have a high degree of emotional intelligence are in tune with both their own emotions and the emotions of other people with whom they come in contact. Recently, focus on understanding emotions in organizations has resulted in increased attention to the role of Emotional Intelligence.

15.12 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss different aspects of work behaviour and the concepts of optimism, happiness and well-being. Explain areas of application of these concepts in the workplace.
- 2) Describe the concept of spiritual intelligence and its importance at workplace.
- 3) Define emotional intelligence and enumerate the role of emotional intelligence in organisations.

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